

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 94

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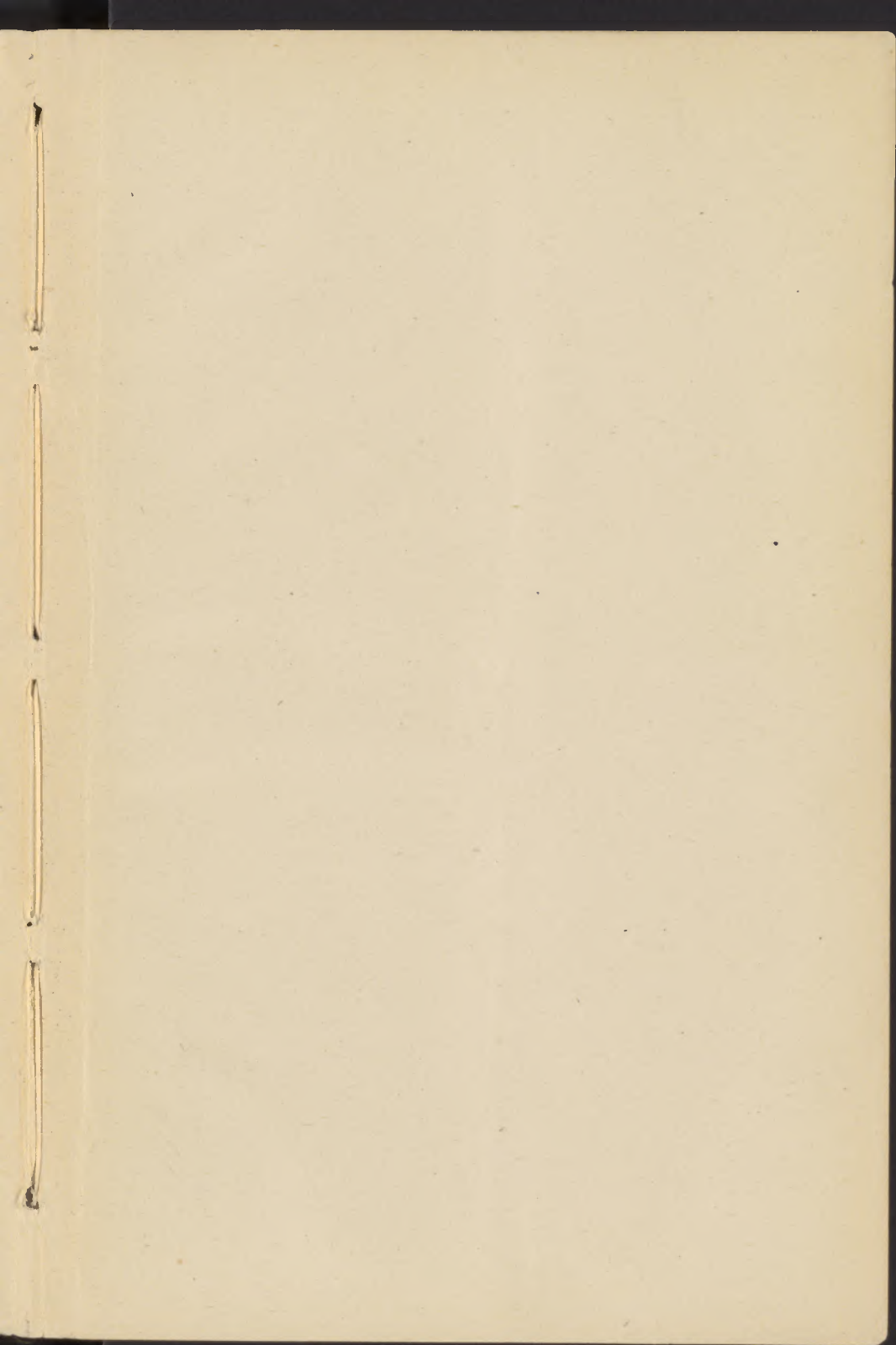
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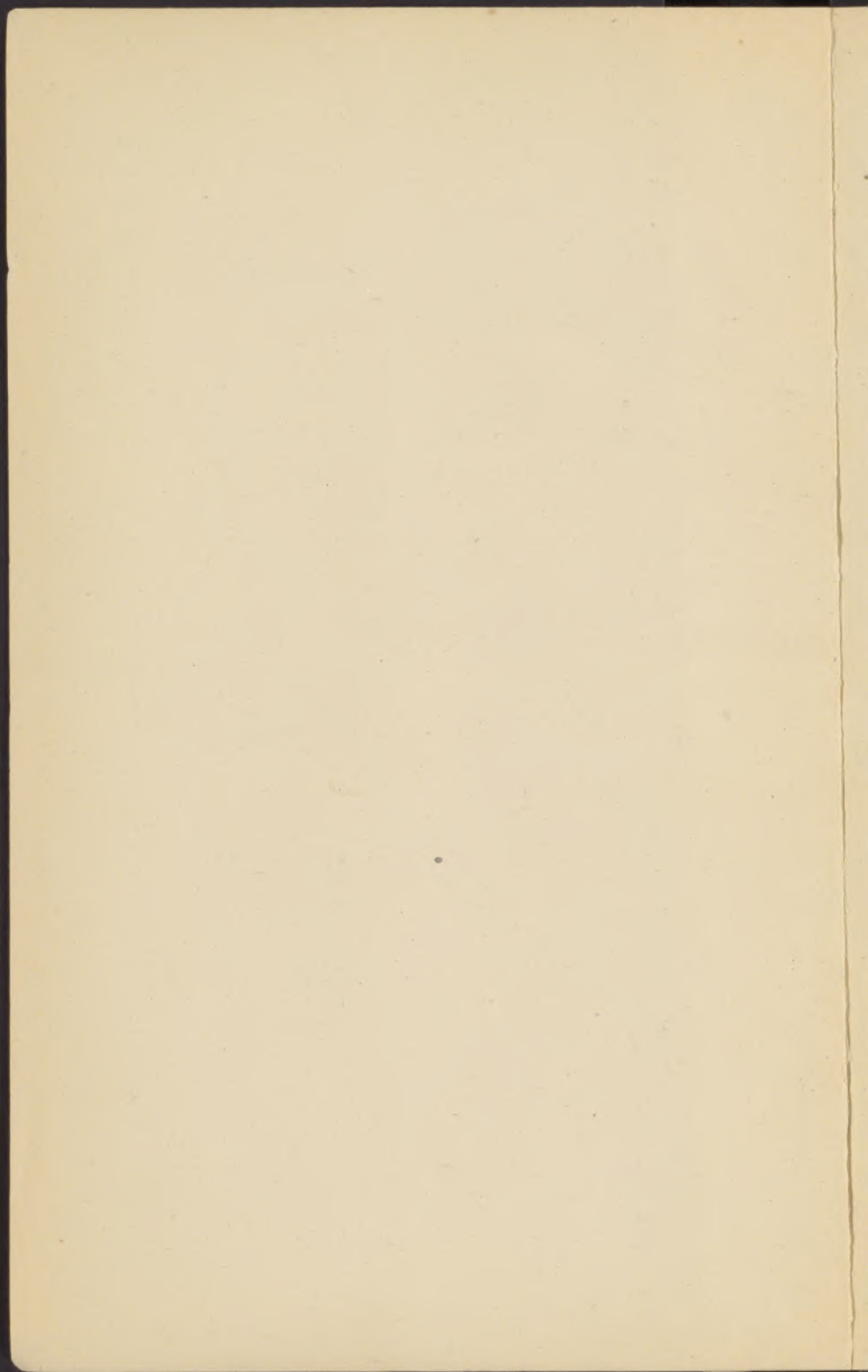


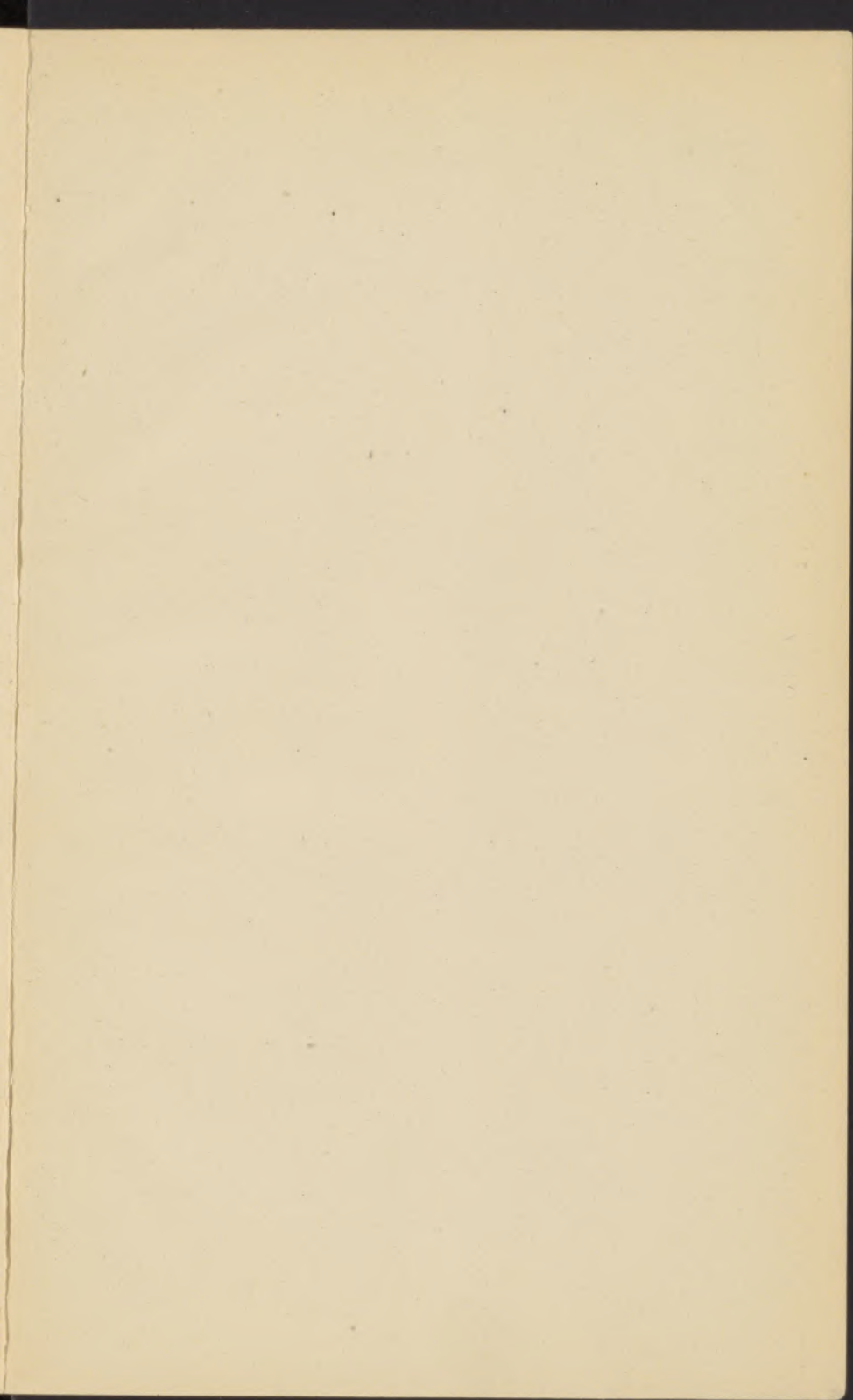


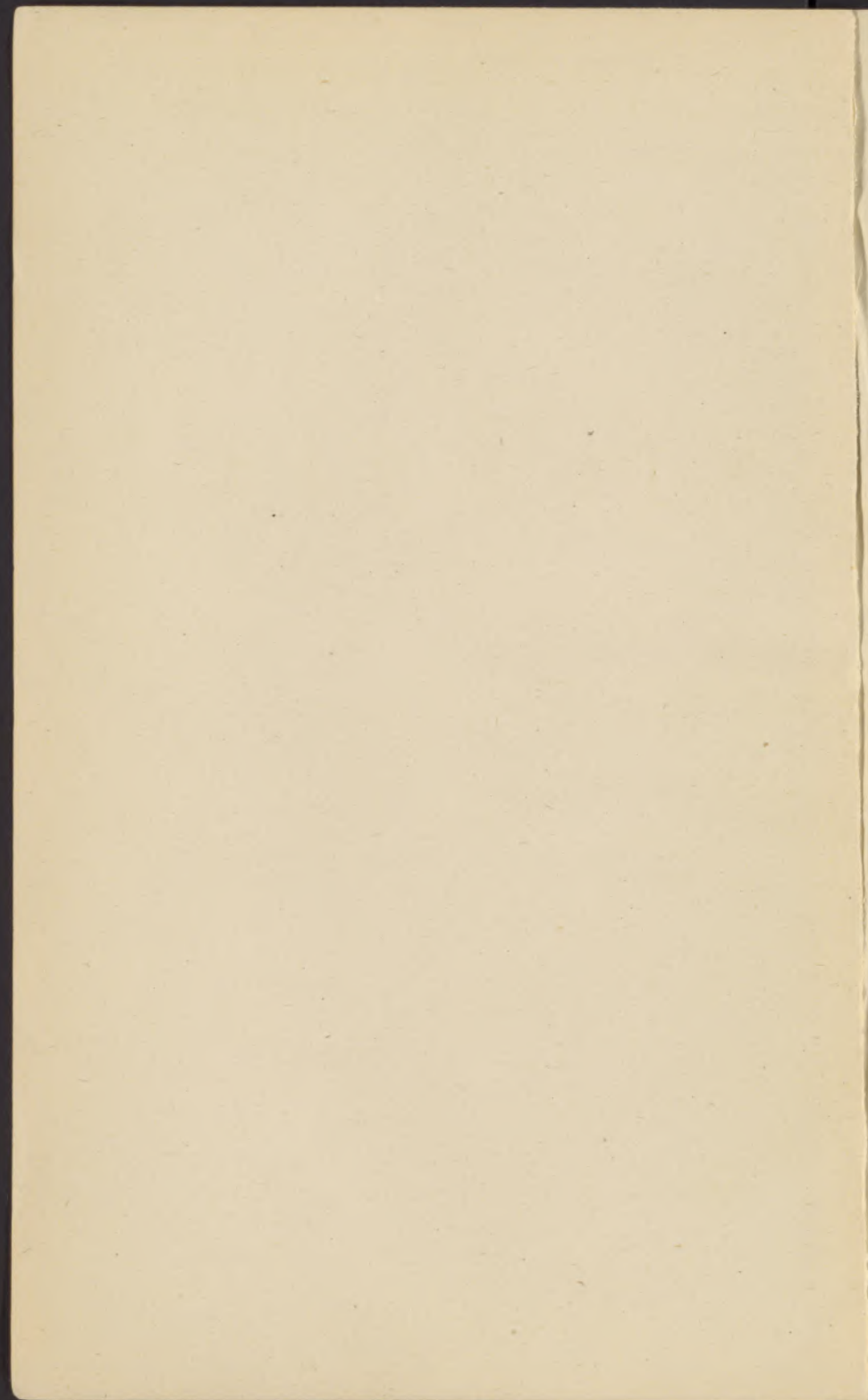
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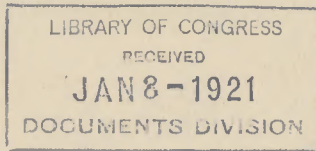


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EDITORIAL NOTE

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty ; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference ; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense ; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.*

January 1920.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL	
(1) Position and Frontiers	1
(2) Surface, Coast, and River System	
Surface	2
Coast	5
River System	5
(3) Climate	7
(4) Sanitary Conditions	8
(5) Race and Language	
Race	9
Language	11
(6) Population	
Distribution	12
Towns and Villages	12
Note on the Administrative Divisions	13
II. POLITICAL HISTORY	
Chronological Summary	14
(1) Growth of the Colony	14
(2) Lagos	14
(3) Southern Nigeria	15
(4) Northern Nigeria	16
(5) Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria	18
(6) Frontier Treaties	19
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS	
(1) Religious	20
(2) Political	20
Native Administration	21
Local Administration	22
Judicial System	23
(3) Educational	25
GENERAL OBSERVATIONS	27

TABLE OF CONTENTS

[No. 94

PAGE

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal	
(a) Roads	28
(b) Rivers	28
River Services	31
(c) Railways	33
(d) Posts and Telegraphs	36
(2) External	
(a) Ports	37
Lagos	37
Forcados	38
Burutu and Port Harcourt	39
Calabar	39
(b) Shipping Lines	39
(c) Cable and Wireless Communication	40

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour	41
(2) Agriculture	
(a) Products of Commercial Value	42
Rubber	42
Palm Oil and Palm Kernels	44
Cotton	45
Cotton-seed, Ground-nuts, Shea-products	47
Benniseed, Kola-nuts, Maize	48
Copal Resin, Cocoa	49
Tobacco, Fibre, Domestic Animals	50
(b) Methods of Cultivation	
Southern, Central and Eastern Provinces	51
Northern Provinces	52
(c) Forestry	53
(d) Land Tenure	55
(3) Fisheries	56
(4) Minerals	56
Lignite, Coal	56
Tin	57
Iron Ore	58
Mineral Concentrates	59
Lime, Other Minerals	59

	PAGE
(5) Manufactures	60
(6) Power	61
(C) COMMERCE .	
(1) Domestic	
(a) Towns, Markets, &c.	61
(b) Organization to promote Trade and Com- merce	62
(c) British and Foreign Interests	62
(2) Foreign	
(a) Exports	
Quantities and Values	63
Countries of Destination	64
(b) Imports	
Quantities and Values	65
Countries of Origin	66
(c) Customs and Tariffs	67
(d) Commercial Treaties	68
(D) FINANCE	
(1) Public Finance	69
(2) Currency	71
(3) Banking	72
(E) GENERAL REMARKS	73

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES

(a) With France	74
(b) With Germany	76
(c) The Act of Berlin	78

AUTHORITIES	80
-----------------------	----

MAPS	82
----------------	----

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

NIGERIA is situated on the shore of the Gulf of Guinea and extends inland to the borders of the Sahara. It is bounded on the west by the French colony of Dahomey, on the north-west and north by the French Military Territory of the Niger, and on the east by Cameroon. Its total area is estimated at 336,000 square miles. Its extreme limits are $4^{\circ} 15'$ and $13^{\circ} 56'$ north latitude and $2^{\circ} 40'$ and $14^{\circ} 10'$ east longitude.

The boundary on the west starts at the point where the meridian $2^{\circ} 40'$ east (passing through the middle of the Ajara (or Igiri) river, where it flows into the Porto Novo lagoon) meets the coast. It runs northward to a few miles beyond the ninth parallel, following the upper waters of the Okpara from a little distance south of the eighth parallel, and then turns in a somewhat more easterly direction to the Niger, reaching that river at a point 10 miles above the town of Giri, which is the port of Ilo. The line is continued northward to about $13^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, where it turns eastward, and thence pursues an irregular course, generally between the thirteenth and fourteenth parallels, to the Komadugu Yobe (Waube) river, which it follows to Bosso, on the bank of Lake Chad. It is prolonged about 21 miles due east into the middle of the lake, and then turns south-east, till at $13^{\circ} 5'$ north latitude it meets the boundary between French Equatorial Africa and Cameroon. From this point it marches with the

frontier of Cameroon to the coast. In its northerly portion, from Lake Chad to the point at which it crosses the Benue river, it follows the valleys of the Yedseram, Kilunga, and Tiel. At the Benue it forms the 'Yola arc', described artificially to the east of the town of Yola, and then follows a delimited line south-westward to a point a few miles south of the sixth parallel, on the Cross River. It then runs a little west of south to the sea, following the Akwayafe in the last part of its course (see *Cameroon*, No. 111 of this series).

The frontiers between British and French territory have been considerably modified on various occasions. The position of the western section from the coast to the ninth parallel was settled by an Agreement of October 19, 1906, and the same Agreement accepted the findings of an Anglo-French Commission which had in 1900 delimited the frontier from the ninth parallel to the Niger. East of the Niger, the position of the frontier was settled in outline by a Convention signed at London on May 29, 1906. The actual delimitation was carried out by an Anglo-French Commission, whose work was concluded in 1910 and approved in an exchange of notes the following year. The frontier with Cameroon rests upon an Agreement of November 15, 1893. An Anglo-German Commission of delimitation sat in 1903-4, and the result of its work was embodied in an Agreement signed in London on March 19, 1906. The delimitation of the portion of the frontier from the Yola arc to the coast was not accepted by both Governments till March 11, 1913.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Generally speaking, the surface of Nigeria rises from the low coastal plains to the highlands of the interior, and then falls towards the Sahara. Within this area

five regions may be distinguished—the coastal belt; the southern lowlands, with extensions north-east along the valley of the Benue and north-west along the valley of the Niger; the southern highlands, to east and west of the lowlands; the central highlands, with the Bauchi plateau; and the high plains of the north-west and north-east, in Sokoto, east Kano, and Bornu.

The *coastal belt* varies in width from 3 to 60 miles. In the west the shore is fringed by a system of lagoons, which are being gradually converted into mud flats by the sediment brought down by rivers from the interior. Farther east comes the huge delta of the Niger, composed almost entirely of alluvial deposits, while east of this again lie delta lands round the estuary of the Cross River. The whole region is a network of rivers, creeks, and swamps, bordered by dense vegetation, while virgin forest covers the intervening stretches of dry ground.

The *southern lowlands*, in the middle part of the Southern Provinces, do not as a rule exceed 650 ft. in height, though the northern portion is higher and more undulating than the southern. The river valleys have exceedingly steep slopes, and the course of the streams is often diverted by accumulations of sand. Similar but rather higher lowlands lie along both sides of the Benue and its tributary the Gongola. Here the valleys are shallow and the plains have a gentle slope, only relieved by occasional hummocks of grit or sandstone. The lowlands also continue along the Niger and the lower Benue, but there vary more in character. To the east of the Niger, south of Kontagora, are low, flat-topped sandstone hills, rising singly or in groups above the general level, and separated by deep and narrow valleys. In the region of the confluence of the two rivers the characteristic features are extended

tabular ridges, low, well-wooded hills, and shallow, flat-bottomed valleys with stony slopes. To the west of the Niger there are rolling, sandy plains, varied by isolated hills or groups of hills.

The *southern highlands* lie east and west of the southern lowlands. The eastern portion consists of a belt of crystalline rock running north-eastward from the Oban Hills near the coast through the Munshi district into the strip of land between the Benue plains and the eastern frontier. The highest peaks of the Oban Hills are east of Ibum, and rise to over 3,000 ft. The Sukwala Mountains, north of the Cross river, attain a height of 6,300 ft. The Shebshi Hills, the most northerly portion of these highlands, are of volcanic origin, and are more rugged and diversified than the ranges to the south. On the opposite side of Nigeria, in the old Lagos Colony, are the high plains of Yorubaland, lying about 1,200–1,500 ft. above sea-level. Detached hills and rounded granite ‘turtle-backs’ rise above the undulating surface to heights varying from 50 to 800 ft. The same type of scenery prevails in Ibadan and Ilorin, and extends northward almost to the Niger at Jebba.

The *central highlands* consist of a massif of crystalline rock, covered by drift or travelled alluvium. They extend as a series of smooth or gently undulating plains over a great part of the Northern Provinces, and in the south-west part of the province of Bauchi rise to a plateau of over 3,500 ft. in height. This plateau is an undulating, swampy, alluvial region, forming the hydrographical centre of the country. It is diversified by jagged granite ridges, whereas in the lower portions of this region the hills are rounded, with a number of *inselberge*, or isolated granite domes.

The *high plains* lie to the north-east and north-west of the central highlands. The eastern group, in the

Lake Chad basin, cover the eastern part of Kano and almost the whole of Bornu ; their general height is less than 1,200 ft., but on their southern margin they rise in places to 1,500–1,800 ft. Their surface is gently undulating, varied only by ridges of loose, sandy drift, and shallow watercourses. Extensive tracts become swampy in the wet season. The western group lie round Sokoto, in the district drained by the Kebbi, Jega, and other rivers. Their height is over 1,200 ft. to the east of Sokoto, but less to the west.

Coast

The coast of Nigeria is about 500 miles in length, and has been built up by the deposits of the Niger and other rivers. It is low and swampy, and in the west fringed by lagoons. Approaching from the west, the first permanent break in the coast-line is at Lagos, where a narrow entrance leads into the Lagos lagoon connected with the Lekki lagoon farther east. Eastward again comes the Niger delta, through which flow several large rivers besides the numerous outlets of the Niger itself. All these rivers bring down quantities of sand, which forms bars at their mouths. Named from west to east, the chief indentations in this part of the coast are the mouths of the Benin and Forcados rivers, the Nun entrance to the Niger, and the broad bay into which the New Calabar and Bonny Rivers flow. The estuary of the latter extends inland as an inlet of the sea for about 30 miles. The mouth of the Opobo marks the eastern limit of the Niger delta. Finally, in the extreme east, there is the large estuary of the Cross River, into which flows the Old Calabar.

River System

By far the greater part of Nigeria lies in the basin of the River Niger. In the north-east, however, large

stretches of country fall within the drainage area of Lake Chad, and in the south there are many rivers, mostly of minor importance, watering the coast east and west of the Niger delta. These latter are connected by numerous creeks and channels with the lagoons of the west and with the branches of the Niger delta.

The Niger enters British territory near Ilo on the western frontier, and flows in a generally south-easterly direction as far as Lokoja, receiving numerous tributaries, of which the most important, flowing in from the east, are the Kebbi, Malenda, Kontagora, Kaduna, Bako, and Gurara. In this portion of its course the river flows alternately through wide plains and narrow gorges. From Ilo to Yelwa and from Jebba to the confluence of the Kaduna plains and swamps prevail, whereas below Bussa there is a rocky gorge 75 miles in length, and gorges occur again between Baro and Kotonkarifi. At Lokoja the Niger receives its largest tributary, the Benue, which has a course of nearly 500 miles before its confluence with the main river. This stream enters Nigeria about 30 miles north-east of Yola, and flows south-westward to Lokoja, receiving many tributaries, of which the Gongola is the most important. It has a broad and sandy channel, and flows through plains which are widely flooded during the rains. From Lokoja the Niger turns due south, and between Idah and Abo traverses flat, open country. Abo is the head of the delta, 95 miles from the mouth of the Nun, one of the numerous branches into which the Niger divides below Abo. These outlets extend over nearly 250 miles of coast-line, and some of them are as much as a mile in breadth.

The floods of the Niger are peculiar. At its headwaters the heavy tropical rains cause the river to reach its greatest height about August, but the effect of this is not felt at Ilo till the following year. Meanwhile,

the summer rainfall in the Northern Provinces and adjacent territories has caused a powerful flood, and high water is therefore reached at Ilo about the end of August and at Lokoja about the middle of September. The river then begins to fall, but by this time the earlier flood is beginning to make its influence felt, and continues to do so till about March of the following year, so that the fall is not so rapid as it would be if affected by local conditions only. The Benue is also in flood in September, and this tends to raise the height of the Niger below Lokoja in the latter part of the year. In May the river is at its lowest.

(3) CLIMATE

The climatic divisions of Nigeria are determined by the amount and distribution of rainfall rather than by the temperature, which is uniformly high throughout the country.

Rainfall.—In the extreme south rain falls at all seasons of the year, but December and January are usually the driest months. The amount of precipitation then increases until July, which is as a rule the wettest month of the year. Following on this a well-marked minimum is developed in August. There is a second rainy period, which reaches a maximum, usually lower than that of the first, in September. In October and November the rainfall rapidly decreases. The total precipitation varies with position and distance from the coast. At Lagos it is 71.4 in. (1,814 mm.), at Bonny 160.1 in. (4,067 mm.), at Calabar 126.5 in. (3,215 mm.), and at Benin 91.6 in. (2,327 mm.).

In the northern part of the Southern Provinces and in the southern part of the Northern, the seasonal distribution is somewhat different. From November to February little or no rain falls. The first rainy period reaches its maximum in May or June, and this is followed by a well-marked minimum in June, July,

or August. The second period reaches a maximum, usually higher than that of the first, in September. The annual precipitation is less than farther south; at Lokoja it is 45.8 in. (1,164 mm.), at Baro 46.9 in. (1,190 mm.), and at Ibi 45.3 in. (1,152 mm.).

In the central and northern parts of the Northern Provinces there are two seasons only. The dry season, in which practically no rain falls, lasts from the end of October till the end of March. The maximum fall of the wet season is usually reached in August. The total precipitation is relatively low and decreases rapidly towards the north. At Keffi it is 41.3 in. (1,050 mm.), at Kano 32.3 in. (821 mm.), and at Sokoto 25.2 in. (641 mm.).

Temperature.—Over the whole country the temperature is remarkably uniform, being as a rule highest in March or April, and lowest in August or September. In the former period the monthly mean is between 80° F. and 85° F. (about 28° C.), and in the latter between 75° F. and 80° F. (about 25° C.). On the whole the annual mean tends to rise towards the more open spaces of the north. At Lagos it is 79° F. (26° C.), and at Zungeru about 81° F. (27° C.). The daily range, especially in the north, is considerable.

During the rainy season the winds generally blow from the south-west. The dry season, on the other hand, is marked by the *harmattan*, which comes from the north-east and causes rapid evaporation. On the coast, land and sea breezes alternate regularly during the dry season.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Partly owing to the neglect of necessary sanitary precautions, the native death-rate is high. Malaria is one of the most prevalent diseases in the south, while leprosy and small-pox are common in the Mohammedan states. Dysentery, pneumonia, intestinal complaints,

and venereal diseases are widespread. Sleeping-sickness is known to exist in the Benue plains, but is not epidemic and shows no sign of spreading. Yellow fever and plague sometimes occur in the south.

Among Europeans malaria is the chief cause of sickness and death, and blackwater fever is not infrequent. The death-rate varies from year to year, but seems on the whole to be falling, although it is still relatively high.

Within recent years much has been done to improve health conditions in the country. The native population has been encouraged to adopt better methods of sanitation and to take precautions against malaria; the practice of vaccination is spreading; and cases of sleeping-sickness, when detected, are isolated and carefully observed. Over so large an area, however, and with a population varying so much in civilization, progress must necessarily be slow.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Race

The population of Nigeria is extremely heterogeneous. The fundamental type is that of the negro, found in its purest form in the Niger delta and the forests of the south. Farther north, on the savanna lands, are negroid peoples, of mixed negro and Berber blood, the former strain predominating. Lastly, in the northernmost provinces, there are the Fulani, also the product of an intermingling of negritic and Berber stocks, but with the Berber element strongly in the ascendant.

(a) *Negroes*.—There are an enormous number of negro tribes, of which the more important are as follows:

Coastal and Delta Negroes.—In the west the Ijebu live round the lagoons and on the coastal plains. Farther along the coast the Jekri occupy the country between the lower courses of the Benue and Warri. To the

north of them are the Sobo, while in the delta proper between the Nun and the Forcado live the important tribe of the Ijo. East of the Nun estuary the coastal districts are occupied by the Brass and the country farther inland by the Oru. The Ibani are settled round and to the north of Bonny, and the Andoni inhabit the coast between Bonny and Opobo. From the Kwa-ibo to the Cross River the coastal districts are inhabited by the Ibeno, while a considerable area farther inland is in the possession of the Ibibio. East of the Cross River, the Efik live in and around Calabar, the Kwa near the coast, and the Ekkoi farther to the north-east.

Negroes of the Southern Forests.—In this region the chief tribe are the Ibo, who occupy the northern part of the country between the Niger and the Cross River. In the same districts dwell the Aro. North of the Ibo, the chief tribes south of the Benue are the Munshi and Okpoto. Bassa and Kakonda dwell in the country round the confluence of the Benue and the Niger. West of the Niger, near Benin, are people known as Bini. The Yoruba of the Lagos hinterland may also be included among typical negro peoples, although they possess some Berber blood.

Negroes of the Central Hills.—Here the tribes are very numerous; it is said that in the 25,000 square miles round Bauchi no less than sixty-four languages and dialects are spoken. In the hill country to the south of the Benue the inhabitants are also negroes. The Zumperi between the Gamana and the Katsena belong to this group.

(b) *Negroid Peoples.*—The origin of these people probably is to be found in a blending of immigrants from the desert with an aboriginal negro race. The Kanuri settled in Bornu and became one of the most enlightened native races of the northern plains. The Nupe live on the middle Niger, where the valley widens between Egga and Jebba. The Hausa are

widespread throughout the region which bears their name, but it is doubtful whether all the people who speak Hausa and are generally reckoned as being of Hausa extraction belong to this ethnic group. The Kebbawa of Argunga and the Katsenawa of Katsena both speak Hausa, but are said to belong to very different tribes.

(c) *The Fulani*.—The origin of the Fulani is obscure. The true Fula is not of negroid type, but has a fair complexion, regular features, and long, straight hair. The Fulani first came as a pastoral people, and even to-day a few nomad Fulani or Borroroje wander throughout the country. Others, however, settled down in the Hausa towns and gradually took control of the government. These settled Fulani, or Filanen Gidda, as they are locally called, are gradually intermingling with the Yoruba, Hausa, and other peoples among whom they dwell and are consequently much less pure in blood than the Borroroje. The former are of fine physique and are intelligent and enterprising, while the latter are small and wiry but lack initiative and intelligence.

Language

The various languages spoken by the negro peoples belong to the Sudanese family. The dialects of the Ibibio tongue used by the Ibibio, Efik, and Kwa are practically identical, and Andoni belongs to the same group. Ijo in one or other of its forms is spoken by the Ibani, the Brass, and the Oru as well as by the Ijo themselves. The Ibo people are widespread, and accordingly a number of different dialects have developed. On the Bauchi plateau some of the natives have a speech which is full of clicks and gutturals, possibly due to some early admixture of Bushman blood.

All the tribes of the Northern Provinces who have

come under the rule of the Fulani speak Hausa, considered by some authorities to be a Hamitic language, which is rapidly becoming the trade language of a large part of Nigeria. The Fulani peoples speak Fula, which is believed to represent the very old form of speech from which the existing Hamitic languages have been derived. It has, however, distinct affinities with the Bantu family of languages.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The population of Nigeria is estimated at 17 millions, which gives an average density of 50 to the square mile. Distribution, however, is by no means uniform. In the Southern Provinces there are about 100 persons to the square mile, in the central and southern parts of the Northern Provinces only 23, and in the northern districts 57. The eastern part of the Southern Provinces is the most densely populated, with 115 to the square mile, whereas in the western portion there are only 75 per square mile. The districts bordering the Niger in the southern parts of the Northern Provinces have an average of 14 persons to the square mile, but in the hills and the Benue plains the density is about twice as great. In the north, the fertile province of Kano has 118 to the square mile, Sokoto 40, and Bornu only 20.

In 1914 the European population numbered about 3,000, of whom one-third were officials.

Towns and Villages

The population is in the main rural, but many large towns exist. Of these the most important are (in the Northern Provinces) Lokoja, Ilorin, Yola, Bauchi, Zaria, Kano, and Sokoto; and (in the Southern Provinces and Colony) Lagos, Abeokuta, Ibadan, Oyo, Calabar, Bonny, and Benin.

NOTE ON THE ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

Owing to the rearrangements that have taken place in Nigeria the divisional nomenclature has become rather confusing.

In 1906 the old Colony of Lagos became, with somewhat modified boundaries, the Colony of Southern Nigeria. At the same time the Lagos Protectorate was merged in the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, which from that date comprised three provinces, the Western Province or Lagos, the Central or Niger, and the Eastern or Calabar.

In 1914 took place the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria, which were thenceforth known respectively as the Northern Provinces and Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria. At the same time the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria was split up into nine provinces: the old Western Province into Abeokuta, Ibadan, and Ijebu; the old Central Province into Benin and Onitsha; and the old Eastern Province into Warri, Owerri, Calabar, and Ogoja (some considerable modification, however, being made in the boundaries).

The Colony of Nigeria, a district of 1,400 square miles round the town of Lagos, had in 1914 a population of 166,000. The Southern Provinces include an area of 78,600 square miles, with a population estimated the same year at 7,750,000. The Northern Provinces cover an area of 255,700 square miles, with a population estimated at 9,250,000.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1861. First acquisition of Lagos.
- 1879. Formation of United Africa Company.
- 1882. National African Company formed to take over business of United Africa Company.
- 1885. Proclamation of Protectorate over Niger Coast.
- 1886. Charter to National African Company as the Royal Niger Company.
- 1889, 1890, 1896, 1898, 1904, 1906. Principal Anglo-French Boundary Agreements.
- 1890, 1893, 1902, 1906. Principal Anglo-German Boundary Agreements.
- 1899-1900. Territories of Royal Niger Company taken over by the Crown.
- 1906. Union of Lagos and Southern Nigeria.
- 1914. Union of Southern and Northern Nigeria.

(1) *Growth of the Colony*

THE Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria represent the amalgamation of three territories for a considerable period administered separately and in different manners, viz. the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos, the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, and the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria. The two former were amalgamated in 1906; and the final amalgamation of the three territories took place on January 1, 1914.

(2) *Lagos*

The oldest of these territories was Lagos, the history of which begins with the cession to Great Britain of the port and territories of Lagos by the local king in 1861, the occupation of the port having been found desirable in carrying out the suppression of the slave-trade, of which it formed a head-quarters. Further cessions of

territory were obtained shortly afterwards; and a series of treaties made between 1890 and 1895 extended a British protectorate over a considerable area inland. The settlement of the French at Porto Novo, which took place in 1863 and was revived in 1883, led to the necessity of defining the western limits of the British sphere; and this was carried out by agreements of 1889, 1890, 1896, 1898, 1904, 1906, and finally disposed of by an exchange of notes on February 18, 1914.¹ From 1861 to 1866 Lagos was administered as a separate Crown Colony. As the result of the report of the Parliamentary Committee of 1865, it was in 1866 associated with Sierra Leone. In 1874 it was connected with the Gold Coast, and in 1886 it became again a separate Crown Colony. It now forms, with somewhat modified boundaries, the Colony of Nigeria, while the former Protectorate is included in the Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria.

(3) *Southern Nigeria*

The Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria represent in the main the protectorate over the Niger coast, known from 1890 as the Oil Rivers Protectorate, from 1893 to 1899 as the Niger Coast Protectorate, and from that time to 1914 as the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. It came into being as a result of the necessity of maintaining control over the British merchants trading to the Oil Rivers and of preserving that region for their trade against German competition. A legal basis for its organization was supplied by treaties which Mr. Hewett, who acted in a quasi-consular capacity for some years in that region, concluded in 1884 with native chiefs. The necessity for action became apparent with the German occupation

¹ Cd. 7278.

of Cameroon in 1884; and correspondence between the British and German Governments in April-June, 1885, fixed the boundaries between the two spheres of interest at the Rio del Rey river.¹ On June 5, 1885, a protectorate was publicly notified over the coast between the boundary of the Lagos Protectorate on the west and the Rio del Rey on the east, and over the interior from the confluence of the Benue and the Niger to the mouth of the latter river, and on both banks of the Benue up to Ibi. The protectorate thus achieved was consolidated by Sir H. H. Johnston in 1888; and British control became increasingly effective after the overthrow of the kingdom of Benin in 1897. The reorganization of the British control over the Niger, which resulted from the surrender in 1899 of the governmental powers of the Niger Company, was followed in 1900 by the extension of the territory of Southern Nigeria, as the territory was henceforth styled; in 1906, as already stated, the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos were merged with Southern Nigeria into the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria; and in 1914 the territory became the Colony of Nigeria and the Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria.

(4) *Northern Nigeria*

The British control of Northern Nigeria is due to the activity of Sir G. Taubman Goldie, who so early as 1877 saw the necessity of organizing British trade so as effectively to secure the trade of the Niger basin. The United Africa Company was formed in 1879 and expanded in 1882 into the National African Company by his efforts; and at the Berlin Conference of 1885 it was possible to claim that the British flag was alone represented in the Niger trade, and thus to secure

¹ In 1913 the boundary was shifted westward to the Akwayafe (see below, p. 78).

implicit recognition by the Conference, which decided in favour of the freedom of navigation of the Congo and the Niger, and of the predominant position of the British on the lower as of the French on the upper Niger. On July 10, 1886, accordingly, the company received a charter giving them, under the style of the Royal Niger Company, wide powers of government; and a formal announcement was made on October 18, 1887, extending the British protectorate to all territories in the basin of the Niger and its affluents under the government of the company. Difficulties with Germany were removed by the definition of the frontier of Cameroon up to Yola by a treaty of 1886; in 1890 the French consented to accept as the boundary of their sphere of influence a line from Say on the Niger to Barwa (Barruwa) on Lake Chad, the line to be drawn so as to leave the dominions of Sokoto within the company's sphere; and in 1893 the German boundary was completed by an agreement for its prolongation to Lake Chad.

The efforts of the Fula Empire of Sokoto to overthrow the company were thwarted by the conquest of Ilorin and Nupe in 1897. Difficulties still remained with France, which, after the conquest of Dahomey in 1893, had aimed at securing a position on the middle Niger and at obtaining possession of Borgu; but, after a period of friction, the treaty of June 14, 1898, solved the question by drawing the boundary line in such a manner as to preserve for the British the full control of the lower Niger basin. The French were given two areas for trading purposes on the Niger within the British sphere; and it was agreed that, for a period of thirty years, equal treatment should be accorded to British and French subjects in all matters of river navigation, of commerce and of tariff and fiscal treatment, and of taxes of all kinds.

(5) *Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria*

The conclusion of this treaty rendered it inevitable that the Niger Company should surrender its governmental powers, seeing that the responsibilities which were thus assumed by the British Government were inconsistent with the monopoly of trade which the Company had secured through the powers given by its charter. Arrangements were accordingly made by the Government; the charter was cancelled in 1899; and on January 1, 1900, the territories in the Niger basin and on the coast were reorganized as two Protectorates—Northern and Southern Nigeria—a considerable portion of the territory under the Niger Company being now assigned to Southern Nigeria.

This reorganization was followed by action to make British control effective. The Emirs of Bida and Kontagora were overthrown in 1901; in the following year, as a result of a raid by the French into Bornu in pursuit of Fad el-Allah, a son of their old enemy Rabeh, steps were taken to consolidate British authority there and in Bauchi; while arrangements were made with France for a delimitation of a frontier which would obviate the recurrence of such incidents. The decision involved the necessity of establishing control over the Sultanate of Sokoto; and, as the Sultan declined to accept British protection, a short campaign in 1903 reduced Sokoto, Kano, and Katsina. A somewhat serious rising, due to religious fanaticism, took place in 1906, but was effectively repressed; and, since that date, the only expeditions which have been requisite in Nigeria have been evoked by disturbances among the barbarous pagan tribes both of the north and of the south. Upon the outbreak of war in 1914 the Mohammedan Emirates remained free from disturbances, though the removal of many of the troops

coincided with a famine; and trouble arose only among the pagan tribes of the north and in the southern provinces, where there was 'much unrest due to reports that the British were leaving the country, or to rumours spread by German emissaries that we had met with reverses in Europe and in the Cameroons'.¹

(6) *Frontier Treaties*

As experience had shown that the existing frontier in the neighbourhood of Lake Chad was inconvenient to France, it was modified by the treaty of 1904 in favour of that Power; and the whole of the boundary of the French and British spheres east of the Niger was determined by a treaty of May 29, 1906, and a protocol of February 19, 1910, approved in 1911.² By a treaty of March 11, 1913,³ the exact course of the boundary between Nigeria and Cameroon from Yola to the sea was finally laid down; and at the same time important concessions were made to Germany regarding the navigation of the Cross River, within Southern Nigeria, which was to be conceded to German vessels on the same terms as to British vessels. It was also provided that goods to be imported into Cameroon by that route should not be subject to prohibitions of import imposed by the Nigerian Government on goods intended for import into Nigeria, if these prohibitions rested on peculiarities of British trade; and the same rule was made applicable to exports, while all transit trade was to be free of import, export, and transit duties. German Government goods were to be passed without question.

¹ Cd. 8172-4, p. 43.

² Cd. 6013.

³ Cd. 7056.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

IN the northern provinces the bulk of the population is Mohammedan, while at least three-quarters of the people of the southern provinces are pagans. In Lagos itself the census of 1911 showed the presence of some 21,000 Christians and 36,000 Mohammedans; and the missionaries of both faiths are zealous in their efforts at conversion. The chief Christian missions are Church of England, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic, the first-named predominating.

(2) POLITICAL

In the administration of the Colony and the Protectorate alike, the Governor is assisted by an Executive Council of eleven *ex officio* members; but for the Protectorate he is the sole legislative authority, while for the Colony he acts with a Legislative Council of six *ex officio* members and other nominated officials and non-officials, who are chosen so as to represent the various interests, European and native, of the Colony. The administration is carried on, under the Governor, by two Lieutenant-Governors in the northern provinces and the southern provinces respectively, and by an Administrator in the Colony; but for many administrative purposes the Colony is ranked with the southern provinces. As the revenue, largely raised from customs, is in great measure collected in the

Colony, the Governor is charged with the duty of apportioning the sums received to the needs of the Colony and the Protectorate respectively, the control over those for the Colony then resting with the Governor in Legislative Council.

With a view to supplying in some measure the lack of a legislature for the whole area, an Order in Council dated November 22, 1913, provides for the creation of a Nigeria Council, with purely advisory functions, which must meet at least once a year. This body consists of the members of the Executive Council, certain other officials, and twelve unofficial members, one representing the Lagos Chamber of Commerce, one the Chamber of Mines, four Europeans representing shipping, banking, mining, and commercial interests, and six native members representing the coast and interior. The appointments are all made by nomination by the Governor, save those of the representatives of the Chambers of Commerce and Mines, which are made by these bodies from their own members. Any question may be introduced for discussion, if proposed and seconded; but the Governor must be informed of any matter which is to be brought up ten days before the meeting at which it is to be proposed; and he is empowered to forbid discussion, if it would in his opinion tend to encourage class or race prejudice or otherwise to be detrimental to the well-being of Nigeria. No resolution passed is to have legislative or administrative authority, nor is the Governor to give effect to any such resolution, unless he sees fit and is authorized to do so.

Native Administration.—The large area and population of the country render native administration of the highest importance; and an elaborate scheme has been devised which is based on the conditions prevailing in the Mohammedan Emirates in Northern

Nigeria. The administration there has been restored and reformed. Funds are provided by a general tax raised in diverse ways in different parts of the country, but intended to represent a property and income tax, one-half of the proceeds being allocated to the central government and one-half to the native government. All the members of the native government are paid fixed salaries, or at least assured reasonable emoluments, and on the other hand are precluded from extortion. The courts have been reorganized; and the executive government and the judicial work alike are carried out by the natives under supervision which secures effective working without relieving the native officials of responsibility. Similar institutions have been created, so far as practicable, among the pagan tribes; and the extension of the system to the southern provinces is in course of development. In the former Lagos Protectorate native governments are assisted in carrying out the function of governing; but since 1914 the former independence of Abeokuta has had to be curtailed, as the native government failed to avoid internal disorder.

Local Administration.—The division of the territory into the groups of northern provinces, twelve in number, and southern provinces, nine in number, and the placing of each of these groups under a Lieutenant-Governor, are the necessary result of the great differences between the systems of government which existed in Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria before the amalgamation in 1914. The land was held on different systems of tenure; the position of the Crown towards it differed greatly; there were varying systems of native administration and of taxation, while the judicial system was differently organized. The aim of the administration¹

¹ See Cd. 8172-4, pp. 37-9.

is gradually to unify the legislation in force in the Protectorate and to evolve a uniform policy, subject, however, to the necessity of variations to meet differences of race, religion, civilization, and environment.

Shortly after the amalgamation of the two Protectorates, the military department together with the customs, railway, judiciary, treasury, audit and survey departments were placed directly under the Governor, aided by a central secretariat. In the case of certain other departments, medical and sanitary, public works, post office, legal, and forests, while the departments themselves are duplicated, their work is controlled and co-ordinated by a common head who advises the Governor. The remaining departments, political, agricultural, education, land, mines, police and prisons, are completely decentralized, and placed under the direct control of the Lieutenant-Governor in each group of provinces. The effect of these arrangements was to render it possible to abolish the system hitherto established in Southern Nigeria under which there were three provincial administrations, under Commissioners whose powers in regard to native affairs were but little controlled from head-quarters, while even in other spheres, although there were nominally centralized departments, the provincial administrations were largely autonomous. In place of the provincial administrations there are substituted nine new provinces under Commissioners with important authority in native affairs, but with limited authority in reference to the other departments of government. In this way the system of government in the southern provinces is in some degree assimilated to that in the northern.

Judicial System.—Steps were also taken in 1914 to reform the judicial system of the southern provinces by assimilating it to that adopted in the northern.

One Supreme Court for the whole territory replaced the Supreme Courts of the former Protectorates; and the system of Provincial Courts was extended to the southern provinces. These courts have the same jurisdiction as the Supreme Court; but no sentence of death, deportation, fine over £50, imprisonment exceeding six months, or flogging over twelve lashes, can be carried out unless confirmed by the Governor or his delegate (the Lieutenant-Governor or the Chief Justice). The exclusion of legal practitioners from these courts has simplified their proceedings, while their institution has relieved the Supreme Court of needless work. The Supreme Court, however, still retains concurrent jurisdiction with the Provincial Courts over all non-natives in Nigeria; and its jurisdiction is exclusive in the Colony proper and in certain other centres, where there is an educated native or non-native population. At the same time the Native Courts of the southern provinces were assimilated to those of the northern by a change in their constitution, which substituted purely native bodies for the old courts, formerly presided over by the district officers and in practice often unduly subject to the influence of the Native Court clerk and the interpreter.

The amalgamation was accompanied by the abolition of the fiscal frontier between the administrations. Customs had for the most part been collected at the ports of Southern Nigeria, but a surtax on salt had been levied on the Northern Nigeria frontier. This surtax, together with a similar surtax on native-made salt entering over the northern land frontiers, was abolished; and it was decided to stop all collection of customs duties on the land frontiers, save at Yola, the point where the Benue enters from Cameroon, and Ilo, where the Niger crosses the Anglo-French frontier. This has resulted in great benefit to native

traders, while it has eliminated a constant source of bribery of native officials and obviated glaring inequalities of taxation, due to the absence of customs officials and the inability of district offices efficiently to carry out the collection of customs over many hundreds of miles of frontier in addition to their political duties.

In the important field of assimilation of law much work has already been carried out, including the valuable measure of the application to the southern provinces of the criminal code of the northern, a step essential to the smooth working of the Provincial Courts. Other measures include the revision of the legislation regarding education and the drawing up of a new code regulating governmental grants, and forestry legislation, designed to prevent the destruction of forests and to facilitate the creation of reserves.¹

(3) EDUCATIONAL

In the Colony and the southern provinces of the Protectorate the missions are active in educational work; but the Government have schools of their own, and the Mohammedans also maintain schools in which instruction is given in Arabic and the Koran. The numbers of schools in 1915 were as follows: Government schools, 51; assisted, 82; unassisted, 587. The average total attendance is nearly 40,000 pupils. The schools include in their programme manual work, elementary agriculture, and training in the vernacular. Carpentry, printing, and tailoring are taught at the Hope Waddell Institute, Calabar; carpentry at the C. M. S. Industrial Mission, Onitsha; and there exist

¹ See Cd. 8434-33, p. 36.

schools for the training of teachers and for higher education, which had 391 pupils in 1915.

In the northern provinces the missions have 46 schools, which had 1,643 pupils in 1915; they receive no assistance from the Government. The Government had 12 schools with 781 pupils, and there were estimated to be 24,278 Moslem schools with 221,668 pupils. In the case of the pagan districts of the northern provinces it has been found difficult to effect much, owing to the reluctance of the parents to have their children instructed, the unwillingness of the children to be taught, the lack of trained native teachers, and the difficulty of the vernaculars, which hampers the effort to supply European teachers. There is an industrial school at Kano where instruction is given in carpentry, cabinet-making, embroidering, weaving, tailoring, tanning, leather work, smith's work, brick-making, and bricklaying. The total expenditure in 1915 for the whole of Nigeria was £46,303, being 1·7 per cent. of the realized revenue, as against £47,900 (1·5 per cent.) in 1914. The Government have also instituted, with satisfactory results, systematic training for apprentices for the service of the railways, the Public Works Department, the Marine, and the Printing Department.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The importance of Nigeria, both political and commercial, is too obvious to need to be emphasized. It gives to Great Britain full control of the basin of the Lower Niger and of the Niger Delta, access to Lake Chad, and predominance among the Mohammedan states in this part of Central Africa. It is the one British possession on the western side of Africa which is carried into the far interior, and stretches out appreciably towards British East Africa and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. It has abundance and variety both of coast and of inland products, and mineral as well as agricultural wealth, notably coal and tin.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads*

THE Government has constructed a large number of broad main roads, many of which are suitable for general motor traffic in the dry season and for light motor vehicles even in the rains. Regular motor services, in connexion with the railway, run from Ibadan to Oyo (Awyaw, 33 miles) and from Oyo to Iseyin (27 miles); from Oshogbo south to Ilesha (20 miles) and north to Ogbomosho (37 miles); and from Bukuru to Ropp and Ex-land (27 miles). The outbreak of war in 1914 prevented the proposed extension of these services.

Besides the main roads, there are numerous narrow roads and bush tracks, on most of which bicycles and even motor bicycles can be used. Horses cannot live in certain districts, on account of the tsetse fly. Though the use of motor transport is increasing, portorage is still widely used. A carrier is paid from 6*d.* to 9*d.* a day, and his load should not exceed 60 lb. Fifteen miles per day is a high average of progress.

(b) *Rivers*

A remarkable feature of inland communications in Nigeria is the network of waterways lying immediately behind the coast for practically the whole width of the dependency. The centre of this system is the Niger, with the many branches into which it divides before

reaching the sea. Numerous creeks and channels link up these streams on the west with the Lagos and Lekki lagoons and with the Ogun, Oshun (Awshun), Benin, Escravos, and Forcados Rivers, and on the east with the Bonny and Cross Rivers. There is internal communication by water all the way from Lagos to Opobo, though many of the channels are suitable only for canoes and launches of light draught.

The Niger is usually approached from the sea by the *Forcados River*, which is connected with it at Sametri, 105 miles above the port of Forcados. The entrance to the river is obstructed by a bar, but there is a depth of 15 to 17 ft. over this at low water, and the channel is wide. Vessels drawing 17 ft. can go up to Burutu, 5 miles above Forcados. All the year round, stern-wheelers drawing 6 ft. of water can go right up to the Niger, and in August, September, and October, when the river is at its highest, small ocean-going steamers, with a draught of not more than 10 ft., can do the same. Except at one or two points where, at lowest water, vessels must wait for the tide, the navigation of the Forcados presents no difficulty and the channels are deep and well defined. The Forcados is also used as entrance to Sapele, on the Benin, and Warri, on the Escravos, since both those rivers have bad bars at their mouths.

Formerly the *Nun River* used to be the chief entrance to the Niger, and it still forms an imposing approach. The bar, however, is one of the worst on the coast, and 3 miles within the entrance navigation is impeded by flats which extend for 25 miles up-stream. Beyond these the river is shallow and full of sand-banks.

The *Niger* itself is navigable as far as the confluence of the Kaduna by flat-bottomed boats at any season, while between July and October steamers up to 10 ft. draught can ascend to Jebba (500 miles). Baro

(400 miles), the Niger terminus of the Baro-Kano railway, is thus accessible from August to mid-October to 'branch boats' (small steamers drawing 9 to 12 feet of water); from July to March inclusive, to stern-wheelers and other craft drawing 4 feet; and the whole year round, to canoes and flat-bottomed boats of 2 ft. draught. Between the Forcados River and Lokoja the bed of the Niger is of fine sand, and consequently the direction of the channels constantly changes, while the variation of water-level amounts to as much as 30 ft. in the course of the year. From 1910 to 1913 dredging was systematically carried on between Lokoja and Baro, in the hope of maintaining a navigable channel for large stern-wheelers throughout the dry season. This proved to be impossible, however, when the river was unusually low, and the experiment was discontinued.

Of the Niger tributaries, the *Benue* is the most valuable as a means of communication. During the three months in which it is at its highest level, vessels of 800 tons capacity can ascend as far as Yola, and by lightening cargo or using smaller craft navigation can be extended to the frontier and to Garua in the Cameroon territory. During the same period launches and steamers of light draught can ascend the *Gongola*, the *Katsena*, and other tributaries of the Benue for considerable distances. In the dry season the river can be used only by canoes or by specially constructed steel barges drawing only 12 in.

Another large river is the *Kaduna*, which joins the Niger 120 miles north-west of Lokoja. When in flood, this river is navigable as far as Wushishi, and even in the dry season barges and canoes can ascend to Barijuko, 21 miles lower. Traffic on the Kaduna, however, has lost importance since the opening of the railway between Baro and Zungeru, and the river is no longer used by Government vessels.

There are various smaller tributaries of the Niger which are navigable when in flood.

The only other river along the southern coast which need be mentioned here is the *Cross River*, the estuary of which receives the *Old Calabar River*. Calabar, on the latter, can be reached by large vessels, but the navigation is difficult, owing to reefs and sand-banks. Stern-wheelers of light draught can ascend the Cross River in the wet season for 240 miles, and in the dry season for 40; but on its upper reaches navigation is impossible during eight months of the year for vessels drawing more than 6 in.

The seasonal variations in all these rivers are remarkable, there being often as much as 35 ft. difference between highest and lowest levels. Generally speaking, the rivers are highest in September and lowest in May.

River Services.—Before the war regular mail and transport services were maintained on the rivers and creeks by the Marine Department, but several services have been suspended since the outbreak of war. In 1913 the Western Province (Lagos) had a weekly service from Lagos to Siluko and Sapele, calling at intermediate ports: in the Central Province (Niger) there was a service twice a week from Forcados to Burutu and Warri, and also services from Forcados to Koko and Sapele, and from Burutu to Lokoja; while in the Eastern Province (Calabar) there were weekly services between Calabar and Ikom on the Cross River and from Bonny to Degema and Akassa, and a service twice a week from Bonny to Opobo.

Lokoja is the head-quarters of the Niger transport. Baro, the terminus of the railway, is, during high water, a scene of great activity. The total amount of cargo (export and import) handled by the Marine Department at Baro during 1913 was 7,164 tons, and the total number of passengers to and from Baro

was 1,120. In 1913 the Niger Transport Service carried 13,209 passengers and 18,704 tons of cargo, as compared with 20,830 passengers and 18,399 tons of cargo in 1912, while the earnings showed a decrease of £10,555, due mainly to the low river and to railway competition. Niger services, including those on the Benue, showed at the end of 1913 a deficit of £8,364 on the year's working, after allowing £8,420 for depreciation charges.

A mail service was run from Lokoja to ports on the Benue as far as Yola. During low water steel poling canoes were used, where available, instead of the ordinary native canoes, to take up mails and passengers. The journey took at least five weeks.

In order to encourage trade the Government steamers carry cargo for various trading establishments on the rivers. The Niger Company owns a large fleet of vessels, used almost entirely for the transport of the company's produce. A few of the trading firms keep small vessels for plying on rivers and creeks not navigable by large craft. The Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis maintains a rapid mail service through the creeks from Dahomey to Lagos. The Marine Department is charged with the task of keeping a clear passage, along these creeks, through the thick grass known as *sudd* and other obstructions.

By the Berlin Act of 1885 the navigation of the Niger and all its branches is free for the merchants of all nations equally.

By a Convention with France dated June 14, 1898, the French Republic is permitted to occupy for commercial purposes two *enclaves* on the Niger, one at Bajibo in Northern Nigeria, and the other at Forcados in Southern Nigeria. Leases for thirty years were granted, in accordance with this Convention, in May 1903.

(c) Railways

The Nigerian Railway was constructed, and is owned and worked, by the Government. It is divided into a Western Division and an Eastern Division (spoken of as the Eastern Railway).

The first section of the Western Division was constructed by the Government of the former Lagos Colony, and runs from Iddo near Lagos through the province of Yoruba to Oshogbo (187 miles). It was begun in 1896 and finished in 1908. The gauge is 3 ft. 6 in. The cost, including equipment, was about £7,000 a mile. In 1907 sanction was obtained from the Government for the construction of a line from Baro on the Niger through Minna and Zaria to Kano (356 miles). A continuation of the original line through Jebba and Zungeru to meet the Baro-Kano line was also sanctioned. Early in 1908 a $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. loan of £3,000,000 was floated by the Crown Agents on behalf of the Government of Southern Nigeria. Of this amount £1,230,000 was advanced to the Government of Northern Nigeria for the construction of the Baro-Kano line, while the rest was used mainly for the extension of the Lagos line from Oshogbo. These additional lines, all of 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, were completed in 1911. The engineering difficulties were considerable. The Kaduna had to be bridged twice at Zungeru and once more between Minna and Zaria. In the latter case, the river was crossed by a great bridge of five spans. The Niger was crossed at Jebba, where the river divides into two channels with an island in the middle. The northern channel was bridged first, and for some years a steam ferry was in use over the southern channel, 1,286 ft. in width: the ferry, however, has been superseded by a bridge completed in 1916. In 1911 a branch, of 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, was begun

from Zaria to the Bauchi tin-fields. In 1914 it reached Bukuru (141 miles).

The Eastern Division (Eastern Railway) was begun in 1913. The line was intended to run northwards from Port Harcourt at the head of the Bonny estuary, cross the Benue between Loko and Ibi, and at Kaduna (450 miles) join the western line to Kano. However, on the outbreak of war it was decided to postpone work on the northern and central sections. The work on the section from Port Harcourt to the Udi coal-fields (151 miles) was pushed forward on account of the urgent need for coal, and the coal-fields were reached in May 1916.

Both the Eastern and the Western Divisions are single lines.

The total capital expenditure on the Western Railway up to the end of 1915 was £6,803,102. The following table shows the main features of working, for the Western Division only:

	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.
Gross Receipts	£485,341	£713,628	£763,913	£622,469
Working Expenses	£342,925	£385,130	£448,979	£436,198
Percentage ratio of Working Expenses to Gross Receipts	70.6 %	53.97 %	58.77 %	70.08 %
Net Receipts	£142,416	£328,498	£314,934	£186,271
Profit on Capital invested	2.53 %	5.43 %	4.73 %	2.74 %
Miles open (mean mileage)	823	924	950	970

The average monthly revenue in 1914 showed during the first seven months an increase of 20 per cent. on the average for 1913, but owing to war conditions this was converted into a decrease of 16½ per cent. for the last five months of the year. Immediately before the war, therefore, the financial position of the railway was very favourable. The cessation of trading by German and Austrian firms and the general disturbance of trade caused a severe set-back, and prospects of immediate recovery were destroyed by the shipping shortage. The proportion of working expenditure to

revenue shows a considerable increase, owing to the rise in the price of all materials and the fall in earnings. These conditions continued throughout 1915, but there is nothing to indicate any permanent damage to the prospects of the line. In 1916 the receipts showed a substantial increase on those of 1915, owing to the increased tonnage of shipping available.

On the Eastern Division public traffic up to the end of 1916 was very small, and the receipts for that year were only £28,375.

Railway construction has played a very important part in the development of trade in both Northern and Southern Nigeria during recent years. Before the lines existed transport was very difficult. Over large portions of the Northern Provinces animals could not be used on account of the tsetse fly, and it was necessary to employ porters, a slow and expensive means of transport. Moreover, carriers were becoming increasingly difficult to obtain.

The development of the cotton-growing and tin-mining industries was particularly hampered by the lack of economical transport. Zaria, the centre of the cotton-growing industry, is 600 miles from the coast and 300 miles from the nearest port on the Niger; the tin-mining area is 200 miles from the nearest port on the Benue, whence it is a journey of 450 miles by canoe and steamer to the coast, the transport costing about £29 10s. per ton. In the case of tin, there was the problem not only of the export of the ore, but also of the import of machinery, without which the mines could only be worked in a primitive and wasteful fashion.

There are considerable possibilities for further development of the railways, and many alternatives have been put forward, chiefly with a view to opening up the provinces of Sokoto on the one side and Bornu

on the other. One of the proposals is the extension of the Kano line along the 12th parallel of north latitude to Maidugari. Other suggestions have been made for a branch line from the Lagos railway to Ilesha and for the construction of local lines in Southern Nigeria. The only line, however, at present under construction is the Eastern Railway.

(d) Posts and Telegraphs

There were in 1916 about 100 post offices and agencies in Nigeria, and more than 3,000,000 letters, parcels, &c., were dealt with in that year. Northern Nigeria never belonged to the Postal Union and Southern Nigeria withdrew from it after the amalgamation.

Mail services are conducted by rail or river where practicable. In many instances, however, runners have to be employed. They are mounted on Bornu ponies where these are available. The runners are specially selected and work by contract; the faster they travel, the higher pay they draw.

The postal and telegraphic services were originally designed for administrative purposes. The revenue, naturally, is not yet sufficient to cover expenditure, owing to the large amount of work done free for the Administration, but during recent years the services performed for the general public have increased at a rate commensurate with the development of the economic resources of the country, and the annual deficit is being gradually reduced.

All the important stations in Nigeria are connected by telegraph, and there are over 10,000 miles of wire open for use.

Telephone systems are established at Lagos, Calabar, Warri, Forcados and Burutu, Opobo, and a few other stations.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

The ports of Nigeria are all situated on rivers at the mouths of which are shifting sand-bars. All, however, can be reached by large ocean steamers, although some of the bars cannot be crossed by deeply laden vessels.

The prevailing winds are from the south-west and west. Lasting gales do not occur, though tornadoes, which give ample notice of their approach and are of brief duration, occur between March and June and in October and November. Between December and February, when the *harmattan* wind prevails, dense mists are frequent on the coast. The general direction of the ocean current is eastward except during the *harmattan* season.

Lagos, the chief port of Nigeria, is situated on an island in the large lagoon formed by the Ogun and other small rivers of the former Lagos Colony. Owing to the dangerous bar it was until recently impossible for large steamers to enter the lagoon, and it was necessary for passengers and cargo to be transferred to smaller steamers in the open roads or at Forcados. Now, by the construction of a mole on either side of the entrance and by constant dredging of the channel, the depth of water has been considerably increased: it has not been less than 19 ft. since March 1916, and mail steamers can now enter the lagoon. It is hoped that when the works are completed vessels drawing as much as 24 ft. will be able to enter the harbour, which is being improved by dredging and by increasing the wharfage accommodation. The cost of these harbour works was estimated at £897,000 (provided by loan), and £558,989 had been spent up to the end of 1914.

The Customs wharf, 1,633 ft. in length, and a large number of public and private wharves are on Lagos island. Liners may lie off the island, where buoys are down for four vessels, 400 feet in length: they can also berth alongside the Customs wharf, in 20 ft. at low water. There are wharves 1,185 ft. in length on Iddo island, to the north of the harbour, where is the main terminus of the Western Division of the Nigerian Railway; and small steamers of not more than 14 ft. draught can lie alongside and discharge cargo into railway trucks. There are also railway wharves 345 ft. long on the mainland opposite Lagos at Apapa, which can be reached by vessels of medium draught; it is proposed to extend these and make Apapa the main terminus of the railway. The Government has a small dry dock at Lagos, and the Elder Dempster Line has a floating dock, 217 ft. in length and 75 ft. in width, with a lifting power of 2,700 tons. The Government is at present considering schemes for the development of Lagos harbour, especially at Apapa, as the existing accommodation is quite inadequate.

Farther east are the so-called Niger ports, Warri, Sapele, Forcados, Port Harcourt, and others, on the various outlets of the Niger, and on the Warri, Benin, Bonny, and other rivers.

Forcados, at the mouth of the Forcados River, is one of the best land-locked harbours on the west coast of Africa. The precise area cannot be stated, as there are many unexplored creeks; but about four square miles of water, with a minimum depth of 30 ft. at low spring tides, are available for anchorage. The channel across the bar is half a mile in width, and the rise of the tide on the bar is 5 ft. The water is calm enough to permit the trans-shipment of cargo in open harbour. Strong currents exist in the harbour, especially on the ebb

tide, but they are not serious enough to detract from the value of Forcados harbour as a first-class anchorage.

Vessels also enter at Forcados for *Burutu*, five miles up the river, where the Niger Company has a large depot and wharves.

The remaining Niger ports do not give good approach to the Niger, but are, where suitable, used as ports of call for the trade with the delta population.

Port Harcourt is a good harbour situated on the Bonny River. It was not discovered till 1913, but is growing rapidly in importance, as the terminus of the Eastern Division of the railway. It will probably take the place of Opobo as a port for the trade in palm produce.

The following are the maximum draughts for vessels using the Niger ports : at Bonny and Port Harcourt, 21 ft. ; at Forcados, 19 ft. ; at Degema, 18 ft. ; at Kokotown and Sapele, 16 ft. 6 in. ; at Burutu, 16 ft. ; at Akassa and Brass, 15 ft. ; at Opobo and Warri, 13 ft.

That portion of Nigeria lying to the east of the Niger delta is served by various ports, of which the chief is *Calabar*. This is one of the best harbours on the coast, situated on the estuary of the Cross River, with 21 ft. of water on the bar. There are good customs buildings and quays, alongside which steamers of average size can lie. There is, however, no communication with the Niger.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

Before the war six shipping lines called at Nigerian ports. These were the British and African Steam Navigation Company, the African Steamship Company, the Elder Dempster Line, the Woermann Linie, the

Hamburg-Amerika Linie, and the Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika Linie. The first three were all under the control of Elder, Dempster & Company, who had a fast weekly mail service to Forcados, calling at Lagos, the voyage taking sixteen days from Liverpool, and a weekly service to Calabar and ports east of Forcados. There was also a large Elder Dempster inter-colonial service between Lagos and Sekondi (Gold Coast), and another weekly service between Lagos and Porto Novo (Dahomey).

During the war, the African Steamship Company and the British and African Steam Navigation Company were the only lines running regularly between England and Nigeria. The service beyond Lagos was curtailed, but steamship communication was maintained with Forcados, Bonny, Port Harcourt, Opobo, and Calabar.

The following table shows the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at Nigerian ports in the period 1913-16 :

		<i>Entered.</i>					
		<i>British.</i>		<i>Foreign.</i>		<i>Total.</i>	
		<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
1913	310	530,876	253	351,010	563	881,886	
1914	293	504,724	197	226,168	490	730,892	
1915	266	530,882	70	30,889	336	561,771	
1916	250	490,957	79	32,258	329	523,215	

		<i>Cleared.</i>					
		<i>British.</i>		<i>Foreign.</i>		<i>Total.</i>	
		<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
1913	300	510,911	251	342,239	551	853,150	
1914	272	467,074	208	225,679	480	692,753	
1915	272	537,148	69	30,444	341	567,592	
1916	252	486,000	80	33,167	332	519,167	

(c) Cable and Wireless Communication

The cables of the African Direct Telegraph Company connect Lagos on the one side with Kotonu (Dahomey), and with Accra (Gold Coast), Freetown

(Sierra Leone), Bathurst (Gambia), and England; and on the other with Bonny; while from Bonny a cable runs to the island of Principe and thence to South Africa.

There is a wireless station at Lagos with a normal range of 250 nautical miles. It was opened by the African Direct Telegraph Company at the end of 1913, and good signals were obtained from Accra on the Gold Coast, Monrovia in Liberia, and Duala in Cameroon.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The people of Nigeria vary greatly in economic capacity. The negroes of the delta appear to be the least capable folk in the country: they do little more than provide themselves with the food necessary for existence, a task of no great difficulty in the district where they live. Farther inland, the inhabitants are more energetic. The Ibo are an intelligent and self-reliant agricultural people. The Yoruba grow cotton as well as food-stuffs, make good engineers, carpenters, and masons when trained, and engage in various handicrafts. The Bini have developed the arts of brass-working and ivory-carving. To the north of the Cross River the natives are said to be careful cultivators: so, too, are the Munshi, who, moreover, spend much time on handicrafts, manufacture stools and chairs, and show ingenuity in wood-carving.

The economic capacity of the negroid races is still greater. The Hausa are probably the most industrious people in the country. They grow a great variety of food-stuffs, and have cultivated cotton since early

times. As weavers, dyers, potters, and workers in leather and iron, they show considerable skill. For trade, also, they show great aptitude, and have developed commercial relations over a wide area. They have proved themselves able to take advantage of modern conditions, such as the import of European goods by way of the coast and the improved means of transport within the country itself. Among other negroid tribes the Nupe and the Kanuri may be mentioned. They are interested chiefly in agriculture, but the Nupe are also known for their work in metals.

The Fulani vary in economic capacity. Those who have settled in the towns and intermarried with the Hausa people have acquired some of the physical characteristics of the latter; but their interests lead them to administration, education, or religious teaching rather than to agriculture or trade. The nomadic Fulani, on the other hand, are pastoral and will probably remain so.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The chief vegetable products of commercial value are rubber, palm oil and palm kernels, cotton, ground-nuts, benniseed or sesame, kola-nuts, maize, gum, cocoa, and rama fibre.

Rubber is widely distributed in the Nigerian forests. Its chief sources are the tree *Funtumia elastica*, and the vines *Landolphia* and *Clitandra*. The latter are common in the rain forests in the southern parts of the Colony, while the tree is found more extensively in the drier monsoon forests farther north.

The rubber industry in Nigeria has undergone many vicissitudes. In 1894 the export of rubber

from the Lagos Colony was only 5,867 lb., valued at £324, but in the following year it increased to 5,069,576 lb., valued at £269,893. The maximum production was reached in 1896, with 6,484,365 lb., valued at £347,721. A rapid decline then set in, and the export fell to 596,332 lb. in 1900, and 131,311 lb. in 1903. There was a recovery later, however, and in 1906 the production of rubber in Lagos was 927,627 lb., valued at £91,260.

From Southern Nigeria the export was 874,298 lb. in 1898-9, and 2,251,315 lb. in 1900. In 1902 it had declined to 865,834 lb., but in 1905, the year before Lagos was included in the administration of Southern Nigeria, it reached the record amount of 2,842,831 lb., valued at £226,387. Since that date, the export figures have been as follows :

<i>Year.</i>	<i>lb.</i>		
1906	3,434,279		
1907	2,843,823		
1908	1,222,203	(Northern Nigeria, 509,454 lb.)	
1909	1,388,009	"	449,345 "
1910	2,634,023	"	519,943 "
1911	2,164,285	"	752,569 "
1912	1,579,000	"	451,300 "
1913	1,144,016		
1914	374,080		
1915	555,520		
1916	891,520		

These totals include the exports from Northern Nigeria throughout, but it has not been possible in all cases to give the latter amounts separately.

Various causes were responsible for the fluctuations in the quantity exported. The rubber boom stimulated local competition, and resulted in a large output; but careless methods of collecting and preparing the product led to depreciation in quality and value, and to a consequent fall in prices, which was accentuated by

the conditions prevailing in the world market. Output then in turn declined; and it is probable also that, owing to the wasteful native methods, large tracts were denuded of vines and trees.

There is still, however, a very large quantity of wild rubber in Nigeria. Until the world's demand can be supplied by plantation rubber, which may not be for many years to come, this rubber will command a market even in its badly-prepared condition. It might be desirable to develop the industry on the lines of the Congo or Brazilian rubber trade, and to clean and standardize the rubber on the coast. This method would involve considerable outlay and organization, but would ensure better returns.

For cultivated rubber there is a still more important future. The Government, realizing this, has started plantations of *Funtumia elastica*, and has encouraged the natives to set up large communal plantations of the same species near their villages. The Pará rubber tree (*Hevea brasiliensis*) has been introduced, and has done well in parts of the wet zone, and the Ceará rubber tree (*Manihot glaziovii*) has also given very promising results. Pará is the most valuable rubber of commerce, but the tree does not flourish in drier districts where the other two varieties can be grown.

Palm Oil and *Palm Kernels* at present constitute the chief wealth of Nigeria. The oil-palm is found in vast quantities in the rain forests of the south, and also, to a lesser extent, in the drier forests farther north. The Eastern Railway taps one of the richest palm districts. The supply may be regarded as practically inexhaustible; and the industry will grow in importance as improved methods of gathering and cracking the nuts are adopted. There is an increasing demand in Europe for the two oils, obtained from the pericarp and the kernel respectively and used in the manu-

facture of edible and other fats, while palm-oil cake, a by-product, has long found favour as a cattle food in Germany, and is being introduced into the United Kingdom.

In 1913 the value of palm kernels exported from West Africa was £5,000,000, or half of the total value of all exports. Four-fifths of these kernels came from British possessions, but three-quarters of them went for crushing to Germany, which at that date had a practical monopoly of the necessary machinery. Since the outbreak of war, mills for this purpose have been set up at Hull and Liverpool. Between 1900 and 1913, the export of palm oil from Nigeria rose in value from £681,296 to £1,854,384, while that of kernels increased from £833,630 to £3,109,818.

Cotton has long been grown in Nigeria, and land suitable for its cultivation extends from Lagos as far north as Kano and as far east as Ibi on the Benue. The natives thoroughly understand the growing of cotton, so that further agricultural development will be mainly in the direction of introducing new varieties. For centuries cotton cloth of good quality has been woven, especially in Northern Nigeria; and on the average 100,000 bales of cotton are yearly required for local needs.

In view of the growing demand for cotton materials, it is important that the cotton-producing area within the British Empire should be increased, and the British Cotton Growing Association, founded in 1902, has devoted much attention to West Africa. In Nigeria the Association has established ginneries at Ibadan, Lokoja, Ilorin, Baro, Ibi, Zaria, and elsewhere. It has not been thought advisable to set up plantations superintended by white overseers and worked by wage labour. Instead, the cotton is bought direct from the native cultivator, and all further cost of ginning,

freight, &c., is borne by the association. The Agricultural Department of the Government has been active in establishing experimental stations and arranging for the instruction of natives in correct methods of cultivation.

The efforts of the association, however, have not yet achieved marked success. The native cotton, though of a good type, gives a low ginning return, and the testing and introduction of better varieties is a slow process. Climatic conditions have not always been favourable, and the destructive *harmattan* wind introduces an element of uncertainty. The palm industry, and more recently the cultivation of cocoa, are serious rivals to the cotton-growing industry, especially in the south. The native has not always been willing to sell his cotton to the association, since he was offered better prices by the local manufacturers. The association, however, believes that the native is beginning to appreciate the value of its steady demand at a fixed price, especially as part of the local market is now being captured by the introduction of Manchester goods. Moreover, an improved variety of American cotton, for which the association is able to pay a higher price, has now been introduced over much of Northern Nigeria.

It seems clear that in future the Nigerian cotton industry will develop chiefly in the north, while the southern districts will be devoted mainly to cocoa, palms, and rubber. In all, it is estimated that about 25,000,000 acres will be available for cotton-growing. Allowing for a yield of about 100 lb. of lint to the acre, which is about half the American average, there should be a yearly crop of about 6,000,000 bales of 400 lb. each. As, however, the record crop of 1913 was only 16,000 bales, the output hitherto achieved is an infinitesimal fraction of the possible total.

Cotton-seed yields an oil which is an important ingredient in margarine; it also furnishes the basis of a valuable cattle-cake. The export from Nigeria has been small in the past, but is gradually increasing, and in 1913 reached a value of £14,431.

Ground-nuts are found both in the Northern and Southern Provinces, but are finer in the former. Near Kano the type is like that cultivated in Senegal, which is considered to be the best in the French colonies. The chief markets for ground-nuts used to be Hamburg and Marseilles, where there are crushing mills. The oil expressed is employed principally for admixture with, or as a substitute for, olive oil and in the manufacture of soap, while the residual cake forms a very valuable feeding stuff. The use of ground-nuts will probably increase largely in the future, but the financial success of the industry in Nigeria appears to depend on the establishment of remunerative prices for the residual cake, which before the war found its chief market in Germany.

It should be mentioned that the ground-nut plays a very important part in the rotation of crops in tropical countries. As a leguminous plant it has the power of fixing the nitrogen of the air and rendering it available in the soil as plant food.

The value of the export of ground-nuts rose from £10,377 in 1911 to £174,716 in 1913 (385,760 cwt.). This figure, however, represents a very small proportion of the output of the world, the chief exporting countries being India, with $5\frac{1}{2}$ million cwt. annually, and Senegal, with $3\frac{1}{2}$ million.

The *Shea-tree* is found chiefly in the Northern Provinces, but grows also in the Ibadan and Ilorin districts. As the railways are extended, the export of shea products should greatly increase. The value of the export rose from £40,496 in 1911 to £74,471 in

1913. In Europe the kernels as well as the extracted butter are employed, especially on the Continent, for the manufacture of vegetable butter and of candles; there is a growing demand and an inadequate supply. The value of the butter is stated to be about the same as that of 'soft' palm oil from Bonny and Calabar.

Benniseed or *Sesame* is another valuable product, from which oil and feeding cake of excellent quality can be obtained. The oil can be kept for a long time without becoming rancid, and is therefore greatly appreciated in Europe for making butter substitutes and for mixing with olive oil. The seed is always in demand, and its cultivation should receive special attention in the fertile and populated tracts of Northern Nigeria. The feeding cake has been tested in England with excellent results. The export of this commodity is not as yet of any importance, the value in 1912 being only £2,972.

Kola-nuts are obtained in considerable quantities from Lagos. The fresh nuts are valued by the natives for their sustaining qualities and as a sort of sweet-meat. In view of the large African demand, the Department of Agriculture has encouraged and increased their cultivation in the Niger and Bassa Provinces. The demand for the dried nuts in Europe is very small and not likely to increase.

Maize has been cultivated for export, especially by the Yoruba in the Western Province (Lagos). The amount exported has varied greatly. In 1908 the total was 15,528 tons, in 1911 only 866 tons, and in 1913 the amount rose again to 11,841 tons. Much of the maize exported arrived in Europe decayed and full of weevils, because of inadequate storage on shore and afloat. A remedy must be found for this if the export is to develop. In the north also maize is grown extensively,

but for local use only. Other food crops are described in the section on methods of cultivation (p. 51).

A certain amount of *Copal resin* is exported from the Southern Provinces under the name of *Ogea gum*. The export varies in accordance with the price. Gums are found also in considerable quantities in the Northern Provinces, chiefly in Bornu and Yola, some of the varieties being identical with the important commercial gums of the Sudan and Senegal. The Nigerian gum, however, at present fetches much lower prices than these, chiefly because it is not cleaned and sorted. The gum-producing areas are remote, the cost of transport consequently heavy, and the prices offered are not sufficient to induce the natives to take up the industry with any assiduity.

Cocoa.—Great efforts have been made to develop the cocoa industry in order to meet the sudden increase in the demand for West African cocoa, but many difficulties have been encountered. In the Western Province the methods of cultivation were in many cases unsuitable, and it may be doubted whether the climatic conditions in that part of the country are favourable. Prospects are better in the Eastern and Central Provinces (Niger and Calabar): the cocoa produced there and cured under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture has fetched good prices. The cultivation of cocoa is likely to be popular, as the demand is at present steady and the labour of production is not great.

The export has been growing of recent years. In 1895 Nigeria exported 157,586 lb.: ten years later, in 1905, the total was 1,051,987 lb. From 1913 to 1916 the figures were as follows:

					lb.
1913	8,111,920
1914	11,062,989
1915	20,394,770
1916	20,167,840

In 1915 the production of cocoa in Nigeria represented something over 3 per cent. of the world's output.

Indigenous *Tobacco* is produced in Ibadan, and large quantities are sold there. It is unlikely that this tobacco will ever be suitable for export, for few varieties of it are adapted for the European market. Tobacco of the Virginian type was tried at Ilorin for the first time in 1915, and has given promising results, but further experiment is necessary to adapt the process of curing to the peculiarities of the climate.

A kind of *Fibre* called rama is widely grown in Northern Nigeria, to meet the demand for ropes among the cattle keepers of the northern districts and the canoe men of the Niger and Benue valleys. It has been valued at a slightly higher rate than common jute. An export trade in this commodity is gradually developing.

The *Domestic Animals* found in Nigeria include horses, cattle, sheep, goats, and fowls. Their distribution is affected to some extent by the tsetse fly, which during the rains abounds everywhere south of the eleventh parallel, but at other times is not common north of the Benue, except in certain limited districts. The cattle south of the eleventh parallel of north latitude are of a dwarf variety, immune from tsetse attacks. North of that limit, cattle are plentiful, and are owned by that section of the Fulani called the Cow Fulani. They keep their herds mainly for milk and butter, and it has been difficult to induce them to slaughter their cattle. Recently, however, ranching has been taken up by a British company, and beef from Northern Nigeria has been sold by the Cold Storage Company in Lagos. The Nigerian railways have arranged to handle the traffic and prospects are considered promising.

No woolly sheep are known in Nigeria. Two varieties of goat are common, a dwarf type in the south, and a larger sort, similar to the Syrian goat, in the north.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

Southern Provinces.—The Yoruba in the *Western Province (Lagos)* are industrious cultivators, and show considerably more ambition than other West African peoples. The country in which they live is particularly adapted to farming, and the climatic conditions are suitable for the cultivation of cotton and fibrous plants in addition to the various grain crops. Although farming is extensive, continuous cultivation is not found, and the use of manure is practically unknown. The natives usually farm a piece of land for a few years and then allow it to return to a wild state for a long period.

The principal crops of the *Western Province* are maize, cotton, cassava, yams, sweet-potatoes, ground-nuts, and to a small extent, Guinea corn, tobacco, sugar-cane, colocasia, peppers, okra, rice, egg-plant, and native beans. Fruits are not grown plentifully, and the trees are generally left without cultivation. The chief kinds are pine-apples, bananas, oranges, and guavas. On the coast, and for a considerable distance inland, coco-nut plantations are common.

The crops cultivated in the *Central Province (Niger)* are similar to those of the *Western*, but there are more yams and fewer ground-nuts. The people of the *Central Province* are generally less careful in their farming methods, and the Beni often plant their crops in only partially cleared land.

In the *Eastern Province (Calabar)* farming is generally of poor quality, until the region of heavy rainfall is passed. North of this, very large areas are extensively cultivated. The earth is thrown up in loose mounds, often 5 or 6 ft. in height, on which are planted yams,

maize, pepper, okra, Guinea corn, and pumpkins, the yams being carefully trained to climb along fibre strings towards central poles. The most important product of the Eastern Province is undoubtedly palm oil, but fairly large quantities of yams and maize are grown outside the forest zone and are transported to the coast ports, near which there is little cultivation.

Northern Provinces.—Tillage of the soil is here still done entirely by hand, and in those parts where the shallowest cultivation is practised manure is extensively used. The absence of ploughs is remarkable, since excellent cattle are numerous and might be used for ploughing. Among the crops grown are maize, cotton, ground-nuts, Guinea corn and other millets, sesame, artichokes, wheat, and rice. Agriculture shows the greatest development in the province of Kano, where the population is dense, especially near the town itself. In this district cultivation is continuous, the renovation of the soil being secured each year by manuring. The mode of cultivation is shallow, and in many places the crops subsist entirely on the manure applied.

The general appearance of Hausa cultivation is excellent. The fields for growing the ordinary food plants, with the exception of cassava, rice, and sugar-cane, are prepared in ridge formation, the height of the ridges averaging about 8 inches. These conditions are found only among the Hausa; the pagan Gwari and Bassa cultivate to a much greater depth and employ no manure.

The crops of the north may be divided roughly into rainfall, irrigated, and swamp varieties. The first include the most important food-stuffs, viz. Guinea corn and other millets, maize, ground-nuts, cassava, and sweet-potatoes. They are sown at the beginning of the wet season, and are greatly affected by the distribution of the rain, inadequate or irregular rains

frequently producing famine conditions. The irrigated crops are yams, colocasia, onions, tobacco, pepper, rama fibre, and wheat, the last being practically confined to the country north of the 11th parallel. Cassava and sugar-cane are also frequently grown under irrigation in the district to the south. The swamp crops are rice, colocasia, and sugar-cane.

There is no very extensive or important system of artificial irrigation. Rains and floods generally suffice for the irrigated crops. In the higher country of the Northern Provinces, however, artificial means are employed. Near rivers and wells the natives make use of the *shaduf* or dipping beam for lifting water, a device which was introduced by tribes migrating from the East.

(c) Forestry

The Nigerian forests may be roughly classified as follows :

(1) *Mangrove forests* in the salt marshes near the coast. Mangrove timber is hard and durable, and has been a good deal utilized for mining limbers, pit props, railway sleepers, &c.

(2) *Fresh-water swamp forests*, chiefly found in the districts near the coast. In these is found the red ironwood tree, which produces a good hard timber used by the Public Works Department.

(3) *Green tropical and rain forests*.—These produce most of the forest wealth of Nigeria. Mahogany of various kinds is found in them, as well as various trees of the walnut type and other hardwood trees, including camwood. The rich red wood of this last may come to be largely used for furniture. It is at present employed for dyeing purposes. Here also is found the so-called 'Iroko' tree, one of the best timber trees in West Africa, and much in demand for building and

furniture on the coast. These forests are also the home of the rubber vine and the oil-palm.

(4) *Monsoon forests*, the drier and more open forests towards the north. These contain types of mahogany, cedar, and ebony, the rubber tree (*Funtumia elastica*), and rubber vines.

(5) *Savanna forests*, farther north, which are still more open and less productive. They contain mahogany of various types, rosewood, and rubber vines. This type of forest is subject to periodical and destructive fires.

The forest wealth of Nigeria has been very little exploited. The only export of any importance is mahogany, the value of which amounted to £105,440 in 1913, but diminished considerably during the war. The export of ebony is now negligible, though large quantities are still available. The supply has, however, been largely exhausted in the drainage areas of the Old Calabar and Cross Rivers, from which the bulk of the South Nigerian ebony used to be obtained. It may be doubted whether, with the exception of mahogany and other high-priced woods, any Nigerian timber will repay the cost of export.

Wholesale destruction of forests in order to clear the ground for agriculture has been the constant practice of the natives. This has a serious effect on the water-supply, since forest or jungle growth which supervenes on land abandoned after a few years' cultivation is markedly drier and less rich in character than its predecessor. The Government has established a Forestry Department, under the chief Conservator of Forests, with a trained European staff and native rangers and forest guards. Large forest reserves have been created in the last few years and are managed in the interest of the native communities, who are given a share of all the profits taken. Licences are issued to

firms wishing to export timber, giving them the exclusive right to timber grown in a defined area of not more than 100 square miles. Certain trees have been declared protected, and may not be cut down without a permit and payment of fees and royalties, while in some cases a minimum girth is prescribed. It may be noted that the supply of large timber available at present within the zone which can be profitably exploited by unaided human labour is being rapidly exhausted, and in a few years the output will be considerably diminished unless mechanical appliances and other labour-saving devices are introduced. At present the exploitable zone is limited to a strip of 3 miles on either bank of a stream capable of floating timber, since it is not profitable to haul timber for a greater distance.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The natives have always been accustomed to regard the land possessed by the community to which they belong as vested in the office of the emir, clan chief, village elders, or head of the family, as the case might be. On the other hand, the right of the individual to occupy his hereditary holding as long as he conforms to the tribal laws and customs is a privilege which has always been tacitly admitted. These principles have been recognized by the British administration. Every native is secured in his occupancy of the land as long as he pays his contribution to the State in return for the protection to life and property which he enjoys. All the improvements he may make upon the land are his own inalienable property, for which he can obtain full compensation, and which he can bequeath or sell with his title. If, however, his land has risen in value owing to expenditure by the State—for example, through railway construction—he may be called on to pay increased taxes.

The only freehold properties in the strict sense of the term held by non-natives are to be found in Lagos. Certain freeholds were also vested in the Niger Company when its charter was revoked. The titles for the most part are Crown grants. Outside the old Colony of Lagos absolute ownership by non-natives has been recognized in a few cases; but the only title which the Government normally recognizes is leasehold. Titles to Crown lands are issued by the Government in the form of leases, the conditions of which are governed by the purpose for which the land is used. Leases of land to natives other than Nigerians are issued with the approval of the Governor, and on such conditions as the Governor may determine.

(3) FISHERIES

The rivers abound in fish, which are caught and eaten fresh or cured by the natives.

(4) MINERALS

Between 1903 and the outbreak of war annual surveys were made of the mineral resources of Nigeria. These were undertaken in close co-operation with the staff of the Imperial Institute. The territory, however, is so extensive that there may be much mineral wealth as yet unrevealed. Its chief mineral wealth, so far as known at present, consists in coal and tin.

Lignite or Brown Coal is fairly plentiful in the Southern Provinces, especially at Asaba and Moroko, about 9 miles from the Niger. It is of good quality, and has been found to be practically identical with the German and Austrian varieties which can be made up into briquettes.

Coal.—The importance of the lignite deposits, however, has been completely overshadowed by the discovery of coal at Udi, 150 miles by rail from Port

Harcourt. The coal-fields are being developed entirely by the Government, and all profits will be paid into the general revenue. This is the only certainly known coal-field on the west coast of Africa ; and, when it is remembered that even before the war Welsh coal could not be bought in Lagos for less than 38s. to 45s. a ton, its importance is readily appreciated. The calorific value of the coal has been found to be four-fifths of that of Welsh coal. The total area of the deposits is about 2,000 square miles, and the seams are in many places 5 ft. thick. There has been no difficulty about labour, for the local natives have taken kindly to the work.

Tin.—The Bauchi tin workings are at present one of the most important assets of the territory. There is evidence that the existence of tin on the Bauchi Plateau had long been known to the natives, who had smelted it on a small scale. Owing, however, to the unsettled state of the country, it was many years before European exploitation began. The first survey was made in 1904, and mining was started by the Niger Company in 1906. Though there was a good deal of initial speculation and failure, the industry may now be regarded as well established and capable, for a term of years, of a steadily increasing output. Tin exports rose, between 1913 and 1916, from 4,194 to 8,128 tons, an amount representing 9 per cent. of the tin production of the world. In 1915 there were 68 mining companies, working a total area of about 530,000 acres, with a nominal capital of £6,359,907 and a working capital of £2,594,658. In that year the tin obtained amounted to 6,910 tons and the value of the export was £773,700. The average cost of working was about £90 per ton, and the price on which royalty was paid varied between £149 and £171 per ton. It must be remembered that the value of the mines is greatly increased

at present by the enhanced price of tin, which in February 1918 stood at about £300 per ton. Prices are not likely to be maintained at this level for long, though they will probably not fall much below £180. The tin is of excellent quality, and especially suitable for mixing with Cornish tin.

All minerals in the territory are the property of the Government. Mining leases are issued to companies and individuals subject to certain conditions and payments.

The royalty payable to the Government on the tin exported varies from 2 per cent. of the value to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in accordance with the price; $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is payable only when the price of tin is above £180 per ton. Half the royalties received by the Government are paid to the Niger Company, this arrangement having been made when the company's charter was revoked and the administration of Northern Nigeria taken over by the Government.

It must be remembered that the tin mines cannot be regarded as a permanent asset of Nigeria, for they are alluvial in character, and their 'life' will probably not be very long. Opinions vary considerably, but it may be estimated that the average life of the mines will be about twelve years from the present time. The period will, of course, vary greatly with different areas and with different mines.

Iron Ore of various kinds is widely distributed throughout Nigeria, and is in many cases smelted locally by the natives. Deposits are found near the junction of the Niger and Benue, and at other places in the Kabba Province not far from the Niger. There is also a large field near Oyo in the Lagos Province. It is, however, doubtful whether any of the Nigerian iron ore is worth exporting, on account of the cost entailed and the impurities which it generally contains.

Considerable attention has been paid to the examination of *Mineral Concentrates* obtained from riverbeds in many parts of the country. Tinstone, gold, and monazite have been proved to be present, but in no case has the amount been sufficient to justify working these beds on a large scale, though in some cases the separation of gold may be profitable to the natives. Though monazite in particular is widely distributed, the percentage hitherto discovered of monazite in the sand and of thorium in the monazite have been too low to repay working, but a more detailed investigation may give more promising results.

A certain amount of alluvial gold has been obtained, and a total of 2,422 oz. was exported in 1916. Mining for reef gold, which has been tried at Minna, appears to have given disappointing results.

There is a great deal of *Lime* in Nigeria, and it is proposed to work a deposit near the Niger, about 20 miles below Lokoja, and to burn this lime and use it for building, with locally-made bricks. It will then no longer be necessary to import any building materials except cement and manufactured iron, and a considerable saving will thus be effected.

Excellent *Granite* has been found and worked by the Public Works Department a short distance above Uwet on the Old Calabar River.

Deposits of *Brine* have been found at Awe, north of the middle Benue, and salt could be manufactured at a lower cost than that of imported salt.

Bitumen has been found in Lagos Province, but there have been difficulties in the way of extraction, and the deposit has hitherto not been considered likely to repay exploitation.

Lead Ore or *Galena* is not uncommon, and in some cases valuable silver lead ore has been won, which would be readily saleable in the United Kingdom.

Clay or *Kaolin* has been found in various parts of the Southern Provinces. It is of excellent quality for use in the manufacture of tiles and pottery, and might be made the basis of an important native industry.

Mica is also found.

(5) MANUFACTURES

An important and ancient native industry is the spinning and weaving of cotton. In many cases the stuffs produced are of excellent quality, although, from a European point of view, somewhat coarse. The heavily embroidered native garments are a feature of the industry. They are expensive but extremely durable, and will probably continue to find a local market in spite of the increasing importation of Manchester goods.

There is an old-established tanning and leather-working industry at Kano and Zaria. The so-called 'Niger morocco', made from the dyed skins of sheep and goats, is in great request for book-binding purposes. Until lately this leather was for the most part sent across the Sahara and sold in North Africa for the European markets. It is now to a large extent sent down the Niger and shipped by sea. The export of hides and skins rose from £37,809 in 1911 to £197,214 in 1913, and £505,785 in 1914. The value declined to £302,420 in 1915, and it is possible that the exceptional figure of 1914 was due to an epidemic among the cattle. The local embroidered leather-work, used on harness, bags, and other articles, reaches a high level of craftsmanship.

Among smaller industries may be mentioned metal-work, basket- and mat-making, dyeing, carpentering, and pottery-making. The native pottery shows a good deal of elaboration and some artistic merit.

(6) POWER

No study of the resources of the country in respect of water-power has as yet been made. A certain amount of power is doubtless available; but the great variations in the volume and velocity of the streams in the course of the year impair its value and render the question of its utilization very uncertain.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) Towns, Markets, &c.

There has always been much commercial activity in Nigeria, especially in the north, where the Hausa have a natural gift for trading. In the old days the main trade routes ran north and south through *Kano* and *Ilorin*, and also east and west through the northern districts, where caravans from Tripoli on their way to Kano usually entered Hausaland *via* Lake Chad. Kano, an industrial centre in the midst of a fertile agricultural area, obtained European goods from the Mediterranean coast, and distributed these and local manufactures to the country districts, receiving raw materials in exchange. Ilorin distributed the goods of Kano through the coast region and in exchange supplied the caravans with European goods from the Lagos coast.

The construction of railways, the improvement of roads, and the increase of security have exercised an appreciable influence upon the direction of internal trade. Trade with Europe and the Mediterranean is now conducted almost entirely through the coast ports and along the railway, while the caravan route from the Mediterranean across the Sahara, being relatively costly and tedious, has largely fallen into disuse. Caravans, however, are still organized every year by the Hausa to take goods from Kano and Bornu south

to Ilorin and Lokoja, and bring back in exchange kola-nuts, European cotton goods, and hardware. Kano, now on the railway, remains an important centre and is well known as a market in other parts of Africa. Ilorin is still a much frequented market, and *Lokoja* is a natural distributing centre for river-borne merchandise entering the Northern Provinces. *Baro* is notable as a Niger port and as the starting-point of the railway to the Bauchi tin-fields. *Bauchi* and *Zaria* are both active trading centres. *Yola* is the most important town in the eastern part of the Northern Provinces: it formerly carried on a great trade in slaves and ivory. *Jebba* is important owing to its position at the head of steam navigation on the Niger, at the point where the railway crosses the river.

The chief towns of the Southern Provinces are the river ports, which have already been mentioned.

(b) *Organization to promote Trade and Commerce*

The interests of the mining community are safeguarded by the Nigeria Chamber of Mines, with headquarters in London.

(c) *British and Foreign Interests*

Before the war, German capital played a considerable part in Nigeria, and German firms were established in all the principal trading centres. The Hamburg firm of G. L. Gaiser, for example, had 6 stations and 27 sub-stations in the Yoruba portion of the Southern Provinces, 2 stations in the delta portion of the same, and 4 stations and 10 sub-stations in the Northern Provinces. The offices of 17 German firms and 2 German shipping lines were closed down after the outbreak of war. There is no evidence, however, of any well-considered scheme for the economic pene-

tration of the country or the control of any industry by German capital.

By far the most striking part in the trade development of Nigeria has been played by a British enterprise, the Niger Company. This firm was originally registered as the National African Co., Ltd., and was formed in 1882, with a capital of £1,000,000, to take over the business of several houses operating in the delta. In 1886 the company received a charter to govern the territories in the basin of the Niger. On January 1, 1900 this charter was surrendered in exchange for a cash consideration and half the royalties which the Nigerian Government might receive in respect of any minerals exported from a defined area in Northern Nigeria, provided they went through a British port and custom-house. The nominal share capital is £3,000,000, divided into 2,000,000 ordinary shares and 1,000,000 preference shares of £1 each. Of the former, 475,000 have been taken up, and of the latter 500,000. The dividends paid between 1901 and 1916 were 20 per cent. in 1909, 1911, and 1912; 17 per cent. in 1910; and 10 per cent. in all other years except 1914, when no dividend was paid. The net trading profit in 1916 was £160,647, of which about one-third came from the tin mines. The company has its head-quarters at Burutu, with extensive wharves and warehouses, and also maintains trading stations and ports all over Nigeria.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The trade of Nigeria immediately before the war was in a flourishing condition, and in 1913 reached the unprecedented total of £15,152,000. To this sum commercial exports, exclusive of specie, contributed £7,097,646. The follow-

ing table¹ shows that for a number of years the export trade had been growing steadily :

Year.	Commercial Exports. £	Specie. £	Total. £
1906	2,950,392	201,026	3,151,418
1907	3,863,331	339,372	4,202,703
1908	3,335,911	73,377	3,409,288
1909	4,114,237	54,924	4,169,161
1910	5,258,452	45,734	5,304,186
1911	5,354,101	37,367	5,391,468
1912	5,773,488	316,218	6,089,706
1913	7,097,646	254,731	7,352,377
1914	6,420,461	189,585	6,610,046

The principal articles exported are cocoa, cotton lint, hides and skins, mahogany, palm kernels and palm oil, rubber, shea-nuts and shea butter, and tin. Of these the most valuable by far are the palm products, which are derived mainly from the Southern Provinces and in 1913 attained a value of £5,126,443. This sum was made up as follows :

	£
Palm kernels	3,109,818
Palm oil	1,854,384
Kernel oil	129,443
Kernel cake	31,484
Kernel shells	1,314

Palm products therefore constituted more than 72 per cent. of the commercial exports. The item next in importance was tin, which amounted to £568,428. Next came cotton lint (£159,223), cocoa (£157,480), mahogany (£105,440), rubber (£89,995), and shea products (£74,470).

Countries of Destination.—Before the war the export trade of Nigeria was shared, almost exclusively, by Great Britain and Germany, the portion taken by other countries being so small as to be negligible. The value of exports to Great Britain and British possessions rose from £1,677,172 in 1906 to £3,693,941 in 1913, but German progress was almost as great, from £1,158,164 to £3,072,131. Of the exports from Lagos

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

in 1914, in the period before war broke out, a single German firm exported 32 per cent. of the palm kernels, 45 per cent. of the palm oil, 21 per cent. of the cocoa, 12 per cent. of the shea-nuts, and 8 per cent. of the hides. In 1912 Germany's percentage of the exports was higher than that of Great Britain, 48 per cent. against 47 per cent. That was an exception, however, and in most years Great Britain maintained a slight lead. In 1913 Great Britain took 52 per cent. of the exports, and Germany 43. The following table shows the value of the exports to Great Britain and Germany, and their percentages to the total commercial exports, from 1906 to 1914 :

Year.	Great Britain. £	%	Germany. £	%
1906	1,677,172	56.8	1,158,164	39.2
1907	2,036,619	52.6	1,619,967	41.9
1908	1,774,480	53.2	1,334,223	40
1909	1,997,415	48.5	1,860,300	45.2
1910	2,581,149	49	2,506,648	47.7
1911	2,576,610	47.8	2,612,751	48.1
1912	2,825,856	48.9	2,586,580	44.8
1913	3,693,941	52.2	3,072,131	43.06
1914	4,193,061	65.3	2,156,512	33.6

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—In 1913 the import trade of Nigeria reached the record value of £7,201,819, or, excluding specie and Government imports, £5,701,599. This was the climax of a steady ascent from 1906, as the following table¹ shows :

Year.	Commercial Imports. £	Government Imports. £	Specie. £	Total. £
1906	2,537,750	309,566	300,951	3,148,267
1907	3,540,723	298,617	599,566	4,438,906
1908	3,262,309	784,263	238,258	4,284,830
1909	3,514,011	1,015,593	432,940	4,962,544
1910	4,578,989	543,381	734,965	5,857,335
1911	4,724,772	510,102	446,106	5,680,980
1912	5,470,049	481,434	478,718	6,430,201
1913	5,701,599	630,152	870,068	7,201,819
1914	5,054,333	1,222,623	624,115	6,901,071

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

These totals are exclusive of overland imports from neighbouring colonies.

The articles most in request are cotton textiles, food, including fish, salt, biscuits, grain and flour, spirits, iron and steel, tobacco, coopers' stores, machinery, cutlery and hardware, and kola-nuts. Of these, cotton textiles are the largest item, and amounted in value in 1913 to £1,675,511, or over 27 per cent. The increase in the trade in Lancashire woven goods is a remarkable feature in the recent history of Nigeria. The average annual value of cotton goods imported from 1901 to 1903 was only £648,000. This trade increased more than 150 per cent. in the decade preceding the late war. The following table¹ shows the value of the principal articles imported in 1913 :

	£
Bullion and specie	870,068
Coal	99,948
Coopers' stores	173,256
Cotton textiles	1,675,511
Cutlery, hardware, &c.	154,857
Food-stuffs	375,396
Iron, steel, and manufactures thereof	357,864
Kerosene	93,262
Kola-nuts	117,324
Machinery	157,353
Spirits	456,400
Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes	230,962

Countries of Origin.—The bulk of the import trade was in the hands of Great Britain, whose market in Nigeria rose in value from £1,843,369 in 1906 to £3,852,344 in 1913. During the same period imports from Germany rose from £304,897 to £808,357. The percentage of the total commercial imports supplied by Great Britain, however, was actually higher in 1906, when it was 69·1, than in 1913, when it was 67·5, while Germany's percentage had risen from 12·1 in 1906 to 14·1 in 1913.

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

The only other countries which in 1913 had an appreciable share of the import trade were the Netherlands and the United States. The following table¹ shows the value of imports from Great Britain and Germany from 1906 to 1914 :

Year.	From Great Britain.	%	From Germany.	%
	£		£	
1906	1,843,369	69.1	304,897	12.1
1907	2,593,522	69.9	477,066	13.5
1908	2,358,187	71.5	450,510	13.8
1909	2,510,646	70	508,154	14.5
1910	3,043,905	66.5	648,244	14.1
1911	3,172,289	67.1	714,761	15.1
1912	3,753,736	68.6	725,661	13.2
1913	3,852,344	67.5	808,357	14.1
1914	3,607,550	71.37	562,340	11.1

(c) Customs and Tariffs

There were no export duties in Nigeria previous to 1916 when cocoa, palm oil, and palm kernels were subjected to duties of £2 6s. 8d., £2, and £1 2s. 6d. per ton respectively.

The import duties in 1914, the year after the amalgamation of the Colony and Protectorate, included specific duties on over twenty articles, and an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. on cotton goods. Unsweetened spirits of proof strength paid 6s. 3d.² on the imperial gallon, sweetened spirits 10s. on the same. Manufactured tobacco paid 1s. per pound, unmanufactured 8d., cigars 1s. per 50, cigarettes 9d. per 100. Firearms were charged 10s. each, gunpowder 9d. per pound, filled cartridges 2s. per 100. Kerosene and other lamp oils paid 2d. per imperial gallon. The items most productive of revenue were first spirits, second tobacco, and third cotton manufactures; the dues levied under these categories in 1914 amounting to the following sums :

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

² Increased to 7s. 6d. in 1915.

	£
Spirits	923,065
Tobacco :	
Manufactured	£423
Unmanufactured	£156,26
Cigars	£1,023
Cigarettes	£30,330
Cotton manufactures	142,565

(d) *Commercial Treaties*

The Berlin Act of February 26, 1885, which was signed by the chief European Powers and the United States, provided that the navigation of the Niger, including its tributaries and outlets, should remain entirely free for the merchant ships of all nations, for the transportation of goods and passengers. The navigation of the river was to be free from any restrictions and obligations based merely on the fact of navigation, and no transit dues or tolls were to be levied apart from payments for services rendered.

By a Convention made between Great Britain and France on June 14, 1898, the British Government undertook to lease to the French Government two pieces of ground within Nigeria, one to be on the right bank of the Niger between Leaba and the confluence of the Moussa (Mouchi) and the other on one of the outlets of the Niger. Effect was given to this in May 1903, when a piece of land at Bajibo in the Northern Provinces, where the Doko joins the Niger, and another piece of land at the mouth of the Forcados, were leased to the French Government at nominal yearly rents of one franc for each.

It was provided by another article of the same Convention that British and French subjects should enjoy equality of treatment in all matters of river navigation, commerce, and taxes, for thirty years from the date of the ratification of the Convention.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

Northern Nigeria, while a separate Protectorate, always required assistance from the Imperial Exchequer.

The revenue of the Protectorate for 1911-12, the last complete year in which the accounts were kept entirely separate from those of Southern Nigeria, was £545,291. In addition to this there was an Imperial grant-in-aid amounting to £347,000 and a contribution of £70,000 from Southern Nigeria. The expenditure for the same period was £827,939.

The finances of Southern Nigeria, on the other hand, were in a flourishing condition. The total revenue collected during 1912 was £2,235,412, and the expenditure was £2,110,498.

•It was partly with a view to achieving an equilibrium of finances that the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria was effected, on January 1, 1914.

The following table shows the revenue of Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1913, and the revenue after amalgamation in 1914. The Customs, Marine, and Railway Departments were already combined in 1913, and are entered below under Southern Nigeria.

<i>Heads of Revenue.</i>	1913.		1914.	
	<i>Southern Nigeria.</i>	<i>Northern Nigeria.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	<i>Nigeria.</i>
	£	£	£	£
Licences and Internal Revenue.	18,012	29,281	47,293	78,483
Fees of Court, &c.	74,168	65,029	139,197	109,237
Customs	1,772,619	—	1,772,619	1,505,712
Marine Department	32,129	—	32,129	68,344
Railway	632,130	—	632,130	695,502
Interest	109,544	—	109,544	72,200
General Tax	—	545,902	545,902	299,002
Posts and Telegraphs	18,651	11,566	30,217	42,899
Rent of Government Property	3,265	3,832	7,097	6,477
Miscellaneous	7,519	2,700	10,219	20,815
Non-recurrent	160	—	160	49,710
Imperial Grant-in-Aid	—	136,000	136,000	100,000
Total	£2,668,197	794,310	3,462,507	3,048,381

The general or tribute tax is the chief source of revenue in Northern Nigeria, where native administration has been maintained under European supervision ever since these territories were taken over from the Royal Niger Company in 1900. The tax is a direct tax collected annually, each individual being assessed according to his resources. Its incidence varies from 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In certain Emirates the amount of land held by the individual is taken as the basis of taxation, and, as ordinary farm land is fairly uniform in value, this system does not conflict with the general principle of a *pro rata* property tax, so long as it is subject to modification in the case of land specially fertile, situated near a railway, or for any other cause unusually valuable. A proportion of the amount collected (50 per cent. in the Moslem Emirates and from 50 to 75 per cent. in the pagan districts) is paid into the Government Treasury, while the rest goes to meet the expenses of the Native Administrations. The whole sum used to be returned in the revenue estimates for Northern Nigeria, but since 1914 the portion left in native hands has been omitted from the return for Nigeria. This accounts for the large decrease of £246,900 which will be observed under the heading of general tax in the comparative table of revenue for 1913 and 1914.

The accompanying table (see next page) shows the chief heads of expenditure in 1913 and 1914.

The total public debt at the end of 1914 stood at £8,267,569. The money was borrowed in 1905, 1908, and 1911, and has been expended on the construction and equipment of the Western Railway, the moles and wharves in Lagos Harbour, and the Lagos water-supply. Provision is duly made each year according to law for the instalments due to the sinking fund, which on December 31, 1914, amounted to £191,042.

	1913.		Total. £	1914.
	<i>Southern Nigeria.</i> £	<i>Northern Nigeria.</i> £		<i>Nigeria.</i> £
Public Debt	354,037	13,300	367,337	343,633
Railway	499,259	—	499,259	709,936
Eastern Railway	44,801	—	44,801	628,925
Public Works	55,082	12,809	67,891	72,884
" (Recurrent)	39,623	16,313	55,936	50,022
" (Extraordinary)	85,502	63,484	148,986	147,515
Public Works and Railway (Extraordinary)	—	—	—	153,835
Medical and Sanitary Services	89,318	40,659	129,977	141,784
Education	33,280	6,118	39,398	47,900
Forestry	20,600	965	21,565	22,172
Agriculture	12,163	4,002	16,165	18,191
Posts and Telegraphs	54,798	25,266	80,064	87,377
Salaries and Miscellaneous Departmental Expenses	581,279	172,894	754,173	799,790
Transport	—	14,018	14,018	—
Mines	—	13,397	13,397	5,268
Surveys	28,360	6,310	34,670	46,867
West African Frontier Force	123,127	150,250	273,377	222,925
Grants to Native Administrations	—	270,924	270,924	—
Miscellaneous	75,082	9,781	84,863	97,740
Total	£2,096,311	820,490	2,916,801	3,596,764

The Native Administrations in the Northern Provinces had to their credit at the end of 1914 surplus funds amounting to £72,224, of which £54,650 were invested in England.

Their total revenue and expenditure in recent years has been as follows :

	<i>Revenue.</i> £	<i>Expenditure.</i> £
1911	197,292	116,560
1912 ¹	146,101	132,761
1913	325,052	252,085
1914	326,508	319,940

The accounting for these large funds has been done more and more by the native officials themselves, and the results are increasingly satisfactory.

(2) Currency

The West African Currency Board was constituted in November 1912 to control the supply of currency

¹ April to December only.

to the British West African Colonies. Its headquarters are in London and the Treasurer of Nigeria is the local currency officer. Coin to the value of about £2,000,000 is in circulation in Nigeria. The coins current are United Kingdom gold, silver, and bronze coins, West African silver coins of the values of 2s., 1s., 6d., and 3d., and Nigerian nickel and bronze coins of the values of 1d., $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and $\frac{1}{10}$ d. The United Kingdom coins are being gradually superseded by the Nigerian and West African coinage, the former of which was introduced in 1907, 1908, and 1911, and the latter in 1913. All are legal tender, the sovereign being the standard. Ordinance No. 11 of 1916 authorized the issue of local currency notes, value £1, 10s., and 2s. They can be exchanged at their face value at the head office of the Bank of British West Africa in Lagos. The value of such notes in circulation in June 1917 was £49,500. United Kingdom currency notes are also legal tender, but there are very few of them in circulation.

Barter has not yet by any means disappeared, and cloth, salt, iron, and tin are used as currency among the pagans and in the more remote districts.

(3) *Banking*

The Bank of British West Africa and the Colonial Bank alone do business in Nigeria. The former has branches or agencies at Lagos, Calabar, Forcados, Warri, Onitsha, Port Harcourt, Abeokuta, Ibadan, Zaria, Kaduna, Jos, Kano, Lokoja, and elsewhere. The Colonial Bank was established in Nigeria so recently as 1917, and has branches at Lagos, Port Harcourt, Jos, and Kano.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

There is little to add to the details which have already been given of the various industries and resources of the country. Nigeria is one of the most promising of the undeveloped tropical dependencies of the British Empire. As has been seen, the development of a number of its natural products, e. g. cotton, rubber, cocoa, &c., will take many years to accomplish, but the production of vegetable oils and animal feeding stuffs, which are of the utmost importance, can be rapidly expanded and is limited only by the capacity of the available labour supply. In these products and in the tin mines lies the immediate wealth of the country.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES

(a) *With France.*

Article IV of the Anglo-French Arrangement of August 10, 1889,¹ provided as the boundary between Lagos and the French sphere the meridian

‘which intersects the territory of Porto Novo at the Ajara creek, leaving Pokrah or Pokea to the English Colony of Lagos. It shall follow the above-mentioned meridian as far as the ninth degree of north latitude, where it shall stop. To the south it shall terminate on the sea-shore after having passed through the territory of Appah, the capital of which shall continue to belong to England.’

The navigation of the Ajara and the River Addo were left free to inhabitants of either sphere, and freedom to trade in either sphere was accorded to English and French traders.

Article II of the Declaration of August 5, 1890,² runs as follows :

‘The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognizes the sphere of influence of France to the south of her Mediterranean Possessions, up to a line from Saye on the Niger, to Barruwa on Lake Tchad, drawn in such manner as to comprise in the sphere of action of the Niger Company all that fairly belongs to the Kingdom of Sokoto; the line to be determined by the Commissioners to be appointed.’

A Declaration of January 15, 1896,³ formally approved the appointment of commissioners to delimit the boundary west of the lower Niger, and a report was drawn up (October 12, 1896),⁴ delimiting the boundary between Lagos and Dahomey up to the intersection of the *thalweg* of the Okpara by 9° N. lat. This delimitation was accepted by Article II of the Convention of June 14, 1898,⁵ which prolonged the boundary to pass west of Tabira and Dekala to strike the Niger at a point on the right bank 10 miles up-stream from the centre of Gere, the port of Ilo. By Article III the line then ran up-stream to the median line of the Dallul Mauri, 17 miles above Gere, then (Article IV) up that line to meet the circumference of a circle drawn with a radius of 100 miles round Sokoto,

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii. 732.

² Ibid., ii. 765.

³ Ibid., ii. 780.

⁴ Ibid., ii. 739.

⁵ Ibid., ii. 785.

then along the arc to its second intersection by 14° N. lat., then 70 miles along the parallel, then due south to $13^{\circ} 20'$, then east along the parallel for 250 miles, then due north to 14° , then east along 14° to its intersection with the meridian of $35'$ east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and then the meridian south to its intersection with the southern shore of Lake Chad. The British Government agreed (Article VIII) to lease to the French Government two pieces of land, not under 10 or over 50 hectares in extent, one on the Niger between Leaba and its junction with the Mochi and one on a mouth of the Niger, to be held for 30 years, with a possible extension to 99, for the purpose of storing, landing, and trans-shipping goods, but subject to the laws of Nigeria. It was also agreed by Article IX¹ that

'British subjects and British protected persons and French citizens and French protected persons, as far as regards their persons and goods, and the merchandise the produce or the manufacture of Great Britain or France, their respective Colonies, possessions and Protectorates, shall enjoy for thirty years from the date of exchange of the ratifications of the Convention . . . the same treatment in all matters of river navigation, of commerce, and of tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.'

This Convention was ratified on June 13, 1899, and a boundary commission reported on the boundary between 9° N. lat. and the right bank of the Niger on December 22, 1900.²

An agreement on the whole boundary from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger was finally arrived at on October 19, 1906.³ Commissioners delimited the portion to the Okpara River, and their results, expressed in a protocol of July 20, 1912, were accepted by an exchange of notes of February 18, 1914.⁴ East of the Niger the boundary laid down in Article II of the Convention of June 14, 1898, was modified in favour of France by Article VII of the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904.⁵ The line was to be carried along the northern arc of the circle drawn round Sokoto to a point 5 kilometres south of the intersection of the arc by the road from Dosso to Matankari, then to a point 20 kilometres north of Konni, then to a point 15 kilometres south of Maradi, then to the intersection of $13^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat. with the meridian passing 70 miles east of the second intersection of 14° N. lat. and the northern arc of the circle. Then

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii. 789; the second map facing p. 90 shows the area affected. A declaration of March 21, 1899 (*ibid.*, ii. 797), extended the rule to all territory between $14^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat. and 5° N. lat. and between $14^{\circ} 20'$ E. long. and the upper Nile.

² *Ibid.*, ii. 797.

³ *Ibid.*, ii. 849.

⁴ Cd. 7278.

⁵ Hertslet, ii. 818.

it was to run east along $13^{\circ} 20'$ to the left bank of the Komadugu Waube (Yobe), then the *thalweg* to Lake Chad, then the parallel of the mouth of the river up to its intersection with the meridian $35'$ east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and then the meridian to Lake Chad as in the treaty of 1898. It was agreed that, if in delimitation it was found difficult to carry out the scheme, care should be taken to secure that the tribes of the territories of Tessaoua-Maradi and Zinder should be left to France.

The necessary details of the arrangement were carried out by a Convention of May 29, 1906.¹ The frontier was described in a protocol of February 19, 1910,² accepted by an exchange of notes of May 17–July 1, 1911. The leases stipulated for in the Convention of 1898 were granted on May 20, 1903,³ one at the junction of the Niger and Doko, and one at the Forcados river.

(b) *With Germany.*

By notes exchanged April 29/May 7, 1885,⁴ it was agreed to define the British and German spheres of influence in the Gulf of Guinea as follows :

'Great Britain engages not to make acquisitions of territory, accept Protectorates, or interfere with the extension of German influences in that part of the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, or in the interior districts to the east of the following line : that is, on the coast, the right river bank of the Rio del Rey entering the sea between $8^{\circ} 42'$ and $8^{\circ} 46'$ longitude east of Greenwich ; in the interior a line following the right river bank of the Rio del Rey from the said mouth to its source, thence striking direct to the left river bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River, and terminating after crossing that river at the point about $9^{\circ} 8'$ of longitude east of Greenwich, marked "Rapids" on the English Admiralty Chart. Germany engages not to make acquisitions, accept Protectorates, or interfere with the extension of British influence in the coast of the Gulf of Guinea lying between the right river bank of the mouth of the Rio del Rey as above described, and the British Colony of Lagos ; nor in the interior to the west of the line traced in the preceding paragraph.'

The territory of the settlement of Victoria, Ambas Bay, which had been annexed to the British Crown in 1884, was, however, to remain British ; but the British Government were prepared to hand it over if Germany could arrange terms with the Baptist missionaries there.⁵ Further notes of May 16–June 16,

¹ Hertslet, ii. 843.

² Cd. 6013.

³ Hertslet, ii. 812. They run from June 5 and 28, 1900, respectively.

⁴ Hertslet, iii. 868.

⁵ The settlement was transferred to Germany on March 28, 1887 (*ibid.*, iii. 871).

1885, stipulated that in the British and German Protectorates in the Gulf of Guinea customs duties should be restricted to the sums necessary for administrative expenditure, and that in matters affecting their persons and property there should be no differential treatment of German or British subjects. A supplementary arrangement of July 27–August 2, 1886,¹ provided for an extended line of demarcation,

‘which, starting from the point on the left river-bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River, where the original line terminated, shall be continued diagonally to such a point on the right bank of the River Benue to the east of, and close to, Yola, as may be found on examination to be practically suited for the demarcation of a boundary.’

The same reciprocal assurances as to equality of treatment were accorded in respect of the additional areas. By Article IV of the Anglo-German Agreement of July 1, 1890,² it was further agreed that, as it had been shown that there was no river but only a creek known as the Rio del Rey, the line of demarcation should provisionally run in a direct line from the head of the creek to the point about 9° 8′ E. long., marked ‘Rapids’ on the Admiralty Chart. By Article V provision was made for the freedom from transit dues of goods in transit between the River Benue and Lake Chad. An agreement of April 14, 1893,³ defined the precise spot meant by the head of the Rio del Rey in the treaty of 1890, and provided that the right bank of the creek should form the boundary of the possessions of the two Powers from its head to the sea.

By Article I of an agreement of November 15, 1893,⁴ it was provided that from the spot on the right bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River about 9° 8′, the boundary should run in a straight line to the point of intersection with a circle described round the centre of Yola with a radius measured by a straight line from the centre to the point on the left bank of the Benue, 5 kilometres below the mouth of the River Faro: it should then follow the circumference of the circle to the Benue, from which (Article II) it was to run direct to the intersection of 13° E. long and 10° N. lat. From this point another straight line was to run to the point of the intersection of the southern shore of Lake Chad with the meridian 35′ E. of the centre of the town of Kuka.

On December 12, 1902,⁵ an agreement was arrived at as to the mode in which the settlement of the boundary from Yola to Lake Chad should be carried out, and it was expressly provided (Article XVIII) that the boundary commissioners might suggest a natural boundary in lieu of the purely artificial

¹ Hertslet, iii. 880.

² Ibid., iii. 903.

³ Ibid., iii. 910.

⁴ Ibid., iii. 913.

⁵ Ibid., iii. 930.

one provided for in the agreement of 1893. The commissioners, however, could not agree either as to the astronomical position of Yola or as to the termination of the line at Lake Chad, the German commissioner having instruction to choose the deep-water line and the British the high-water mark as indicating the shore. Their divergence of view was formally recorded in a protocol of February 24, 1904.¹ By an agreement of March 19, 1906,² however, the boundary was determined by a compromise which drew an artificial boundary round Dikoa so as to place it in the German sphere, and this agreement was accepted by an exchange of notes on July 16, 1906.³ The section between Yola and the sea was finally defined by an agreement of March 11, 1913,⁴ under which the boundary was shifted slightly westwards to the Akwayafe River; and at the same time German vessels were accorded the right of navigation on the Cross River subject to the same rules as British vessels, transit traffic was declared free of import, export, or transit dues, all German Government goods were to be allowed to pass without verification as transit goods, and as regards other goods, their importation into Cameroon *via* the Cross River was only liable to prohibition on the ground of general rules applicable to Southern Nigeria, issued 'for the general safety of the country, for the upholding of public morals, as a protection against infectious diseases, or for the combating of diseases in cattle or plants. On the other hand transit goods shall not be subjected to any prohibition of import or export which is solely based on some special peculiarities of British trade.'

(c) *The Act of Berlin.*

Chapter V⁵ of the Berlin Act of February 26, 1885, provides an Act of Navigation for the Niger. Article XXVI provides as follows:

'The Navigation of the Niger, without excepting any of its branches and outlets, is and shall remain entirely free for the merchant ships of all nations equally, whether with cargo or in ballast, for the transportation of goods and passengers. It shall be regulated by the provisions of this Act of Navigation, and by the rules to be made in pursuance of this Act. In the exercise of this navigation the subjects and flags of all nations shall be treated, in all circumstances, on a footing of perfect equality, not only for the direct navigation from the open sea to the inland ports of the Niger, and *vice versa*, but for the great and small coasting trade, and for boat trade on the course of the river. Consequently, on all the course and mouths of the Niger there will be no distinction made between the subjects of the Riverain states and those of non-Riverain states;

¹ Hertslet, iii. 933.

² *Ibid.*, iii. 937.

³ *Ibid.*, iii. 941.

⁴ Cd. 7056.

⁵ Hertslet, ii. 481.

and no exclusive privilege of navigation will be conceded to companies, corporations, or private persons. These provisions are recognized by the Signatory Powers as forming henceforth a part of international law.'

Article XXVII forbids the imposition of any restriction or obligation in respect of navigation, the levying of dues for landing, breaking bulk, or entry, transit dues, or other tolls.

'There shall only be collected taxes or duties which shall be an equivalent for services rendered to navigation itself. The Tariff of these taxes or duties shall not warrant any differential treatment.'

Article XXVIII applies the same rules to affluents of the Niger, and Article XXIX enacts a similar régime for railways, roads, or lateral canals constructed to make good imperfections of the river route on the Niger, its affluents, branches, and outlets. By Article XXX Great Britain undertakes to apply these principles to those portions of the Niger under British sovereignty or protection, and to protect foreign merchants and all the trading nationalities on the Niger like her own subjects. Similar undertakings are obligatory on France and on any other State with control on the Niger by Articles XXXI and XXXII, and Article XXXIII provides for the maintenance of freedom of navigation even in time of war :

'The arrangements of the present Act of Navigation will remain in force in time of war. Consequently, the navigation of all neutral or belligerent nations will be in all time free for the usages of commerce on the Niger, its branches, its affluents, its mouths, and outlets, as well as on the territorial waters opposite the mouths and outlets of that river. The traffic will remain equally free in spite of a state of war on the roads, railways, and canals mentioned in Article XXIX. There will be an exception to this principle only in that which relates to the transport of articles destined for a belligerent, and considered, in virtue of the law of nations, as articles contraband of war.'

By the Anglo-German treaty of November 15, 1893,¹ it was expressly provided that Great Britain accepted the obligation to recognize the duties imposed on her by the Berlin Act in respect of the waters of the Niger and its affluents under her control, while Germany similarly recognized the same obligations in respect of the waters under her control.

¹ Hertslet, iii. 915.

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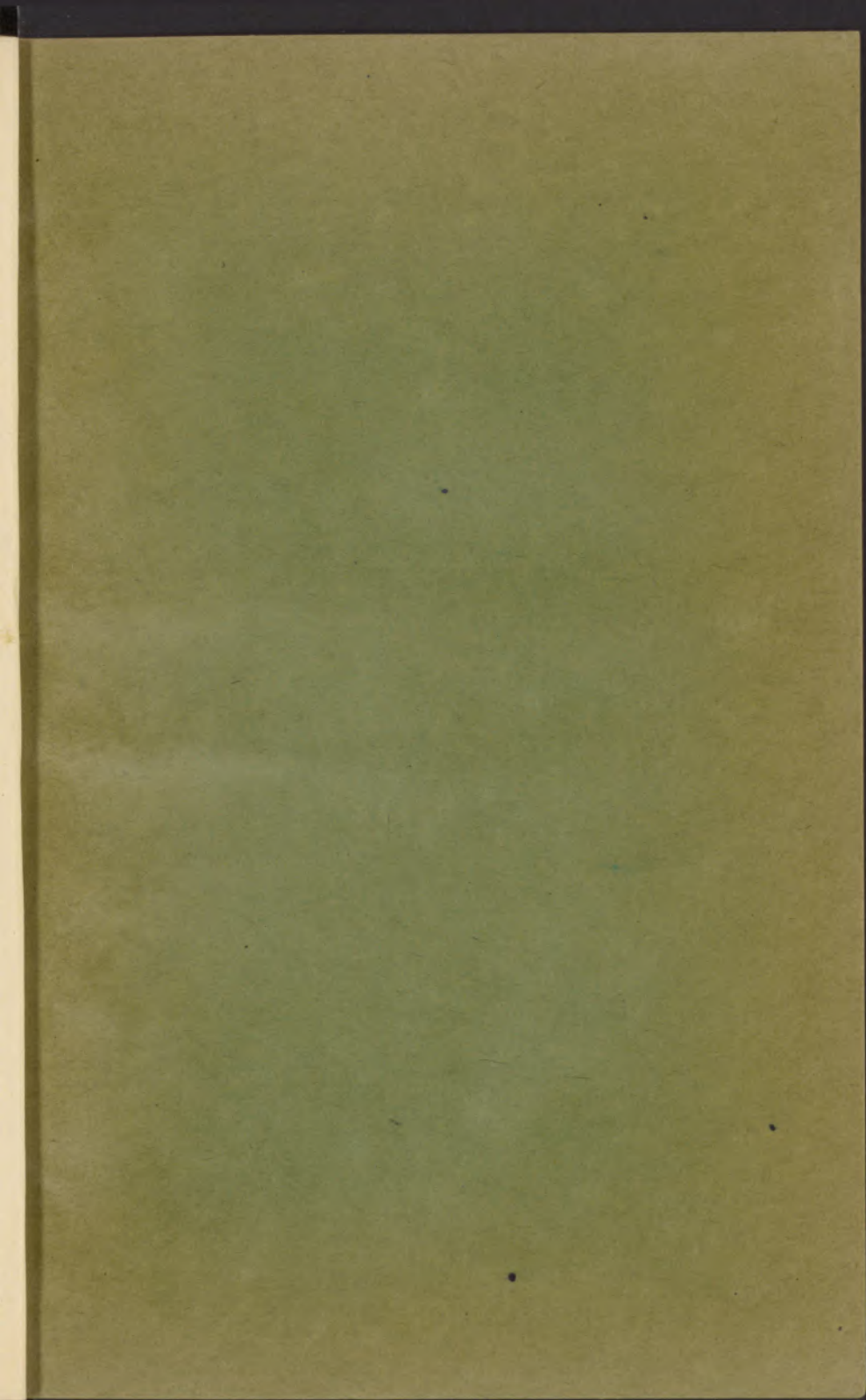
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MAPS

A map of 'Northern and Southern Nigeria', on the scale of 1 : 2,000,000, has been published (1910) by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2437).



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